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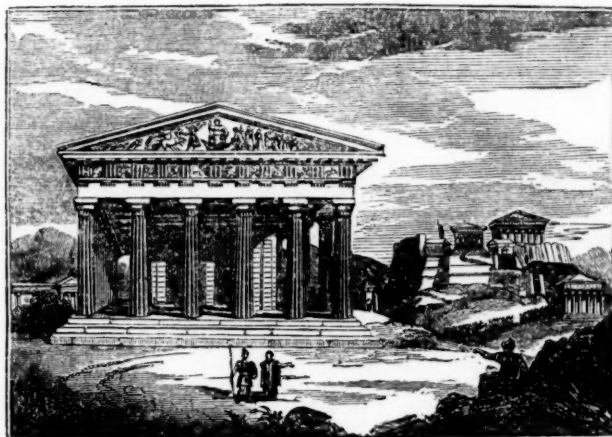
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THE ATHENÆUM

Journal of English and Foreign Literature, Science, and the Fine Arts.

No. 584.

LONDON, SATURDAY, JANUARY 5, 1839.

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NOTICE.

We think it well thus early to direct the attention of our readers to an alteration in the typographical arrangement of the Paper. The Advertisements, instead of being crowded together, as heretofore, will, for the future, be separated, and occupy the first, as well as the last pages. The change has been strongly urged on us for two or three years past. Our only objection was that which exists against all change, the necessity for which is not manifest. When, however, we found that the last page, considered the best for display,—was commonly secured four and five months in advance, the feelings of those most interested were so manifest, that we could no longer refuse our assent. All Advertisements will now come pretty equally under the eye of the reader.

KINGS COLLEGE, LONDON.—SENIOR DEPARTMENT.—The CLASSES in THEOLOGY, the Classics, Mathematics, English Literature, and History, will be RE-OPENED on WEDNESDAY, the 23rd of January. The Courses of Instruction in Hebrew, the Oriental, and other Foreign Languages, will also be resumed. **JUNIOR DEPARTMENT.**—The Classes in the School will be Re-opened on Wednesday, the 23rd of January, at 9 o'clock A.M. Dec. 21, 1838.

CIVIL ENGINEERING AND MINING.—A Detailed STATEMENT of the LECTURES, &c. in this Department, may be obtained at the Secretary's Office. The Lectures on Chemistry will re-commence on Monday, the 14th January.—The other Lectures will be resumed on Wednesday, the 23rd January. King's College, London, December 26, 1838.

CIVIL ENGINEERING.—THE COURSES OF LECTURES IN AID OF THE SYSTEM OF INSTRUCTION pursued in the Offices of CIVIL ENGINEERS, will be commenced as follows:—**MR. DE MORGAN**, Professor of Mathematics, will give LECTURES and PRAXES, the principal object of which will be to teach the application of Arithmetic to the results of Algebra and Geometry. First Lecture, Saturday, 12th January, at 7 o'clock in the evening.

MR. SYLVESTER, Professor of Natural Philosophy, will deliver an ELEMENTARY COURSE ON MECHANICS, HYDROSTATICS, on the DOCTRINE OF HEAT as applied to the STEAM ENGINE, and on the General Principles which regulate the Action of Machinery.

The Lectures of Professor Sylvester will be given every Monday and Wednesday Evening, from 8 to 9. First Lecture on Monday, 21st January.

By attending a Course or Courses of the Practical Chemistry of Professor Graham on Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday, from 4 to 5, the Civil Engineer will be exercised in the manipulations of Testing and Analyzing, especially as regards mineral substances used in the Arts. The First Course will begin on Thursday, 10th January.

Either of these Classes may be attended separately. Prospective students may be had at the Office of the College; and at Messrs. Taylor & Walton's, Booksellers to the College, Upper Gower-street. **HENRY MALDEN**, Dean of the Faculty of Arts. CHAS. C. ATKINSON, Secretary to the Council. University College, London, 20th Dec. 1838.

SCHOOL OF PRACTICAL CHEMISTRY. UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON.—A COURSE OF PRACTICAL CHEMISTRY, in which the Pupils themselves conduct the Processes, will be commenced by Professor GRAHAM on THURSDAY, January 10, at 4 P.M., and be continued on Tuesday and Thursday, at 7 and 8 o'clock on Saturdays, for three months.—A Prospectus, in which the Exercises and Processes are enumerated, may be had at the Office of the College; and at Messrs. Taylor & Walton's, 28, Upper Gower-street.

HENRY MALDEN, Dean of the Faculty of Arts. **SAMUEL COOPER**, Dean of the Faculty of Medicine. CHAS. C. ATKINSON, Secretary to the Council. 20th Dec. 1838.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON.—VACANT PROFESSORSHIP OF JURISPRUDENCE.—The University of London having announced their determination to confer honours on the best Proficients in Jurisprudence, and having also declared that,

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The Council of University College have resolved to fill up the VACANT CHAIR OF JURISPRUDENCE. All persons, therefore, who are desirous of becoming CANDIDATES for such PROFESSORSHIP, are requested to send in their applications and testimonials on or before the 10th day of January, 1839.

3rd Jan. 1839. CHAS. C. ATKINSON, Secretary to the Council.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON.—FACULTY OF ARTS AND LAW.—SESSION 1838-39.—The LECTURES to the CLASSES in this Faculty will be resumed on THURSDAY, the 10th January, 1839. Such a division of the subject is made in most Classes as enables a Student to enter advantageously at this part of the Course.—The Fee is proportionally reduced.

The following Courses will commence—**HISTORY.**—Professor the Rev. Robert Vaughan, D.D., on Monday, January 21, at 3 o'clock P.M. **ENGLISH LAW.**—Professor Carey, A.M., on Friday, Jan. 11, at 3 o'clock P.M.

CIVIL ENGINEERING.—Professor De Morgan, on Saturday, January 12, at 7 o'clock P.M. Professor Sylvester, on Monday, January 14, at 7 o'clock P.M.

PRACTICAL CHEMISTRY.—Professor Graham, on Thursday, January 10, at 4 o'clock P.M.

Prospectuses of the Courses may be had on application at the Office of the College.

HENRY MALDEN, Dean of the Faculty. CHAS. C. ATKINSON, Secretary to the Council. 22nd Dec. 1838.

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THOMAS H. KEY, A.M., Professor of Latin, University College. **HENRY MALDEN, A.M.**, Professor of Greek, Do. Do. The SCHOOL will RE-OPEN for the next term on TUESDAY, the 15th January, 1839. The year is divided into three terms. Fee for each term, 5s. The hours of attendance are from a quarter past 9 to half-past 2. The subjects taught (without extra charge) are Reading, Writing; the Properties of the most familiar Objects, Natural and Artificial; the English, Latin, Greek, and German Languages; Ancient and Modern History; Geography (both Physical and Political); Arithmetic and Book-keeping; the Elements of Mathematics, and of Natural Philosophy and Drawing.

Prospectuses and further particulars may be obtained at the Office of the College. Dec. 22nd, 1838. CHAS. C. ATKINSON, Sec. N.B. The following Assistant Masters receive Boarders:—**Mr. Behan**, 16, Easton-square; the Rev. **Wm. Cooke**, 25, Tombridge-place; **Mr. Hardy**, 32, Mornington-crescent; **Mr. Haselwood**, 20, Upper Gower-street.

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ON ENGRAVING, by Mr. Baskett. ON ASTRONOMY, by Mr. Wallis. ON THE GENIUS OF SHAKESPEARE, by Mr. Elton.

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ON THE RUINS OF PERSEPOLIS, AND THE ANTIQUITIES OF THE ARABS IN SPAIN, by Professor Vaughan.

AND ON THE METALS, by Mr. Clark. GEORGE STACY, Secretary.

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REVIEWS

SEAT OF WAR IN THE EAST.

An Account of the Kingdom of Caubul. (New and revised edition.) By the Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone. Bentley.

Journey to the North of India, through Russia, Persia, and Afghanistan. By Lieutenant A. Conolly. 2nd edition. Bentley.

It is not our custom to do more than announce the republications of a work, and, in the present instance, the literary merits of those before us are too well established to need discussion; but recent events have given great interest and importance to the subjects of which they treat, and we shall therefore, from them, and from other sources of information, public and private, endeavour to make our readers acquainted with the countries about to become the seat of war in the East, and the parties who are, more or less, likely to be involved in hostilities.

A glance at the map of India will show that our north-western frontier is the only side on which our dominions are exposed to danger from invasion. The Himalayah chain secures the peninsula on the north: between this and the ocean are the extensive countries watered by the Indus and its tributary streams, through which invaders have made their way into Hindūstān, from unknown centuries, before the age of Alexander to the days of Nadir Shah. On this side, our frontiers are protected by the River Sutledge and the great Indian desert, which terminates in the extraordinary salt-marsh called the Runn of Cutch. Beyond the Sutledge is the kingdom of Lahore, or the Panjāb; the latter name, signifying "five waters," is descriptive of its situation and nature, for it is watered by the five tributary streams of the Indus, having the main branch for its western, and the Sutledge for its eastern frontier. Between the Panjāb and the ocean are the district of Moultaun, recently annexed to the kingdom of Lahore by Runjeet Singh, and Sind, a country of irregular shape and indefinite frontier, governed by independent Ameers. The main branch of the Indus divides the kingdom of Lahore from Afghanistan, which was once a very powerful kingdom, and, when visited by Mr. Elphinstone in 1809, seemed likely to rival the ancient monarchy of Persia; but repeated civil wars have broken it into a number of independent principalities, whose rulers are almost constantly engaged in petty hostilities. On this account the territories of the Afghans have excited the cupidity of the Persians on one side, and the Sikhs of Lahore on the other, and they have been forced to cede valuable districts to both.

The position of these countries in no small degree regulates their policy. Runjeet Singh, the king of Lahore, has nothing to gain and everything to lose by engaging in war with the English. Were our forces withdrawn, it is doubtful if he could make any permanent conquest east of the Sutledge, for the Mohammedans hate the Sikhs more than any other religious denomination, and the Hindūs equally detest them on account of their disregard of caste. The Sikh religion is a kind of compromise between Hindūism and Islamism, and it is equally odious to the members of both. On the other side, Runjeet's interests require him to keep a vigilant watch on the Afghans: the most valuable portions of his kingdom have been wrested from their empire, and his frontiers are exposed to their reprisals.

Little need be said of Sind; it was a province dependent on the Afghan kingdom of Caubul until the dismemberment of that monarchy: the Ameers who govern it possess neither strength nor wisdom; they are, however, very jealous

both of the English and of Runjeet Singh, and will, therefore, probably do all in their power to prevent the steam navigation of the Indus; and their country commands the mouths of that river.

In order to understand the political condition of Afghanistan, it will be necessary to give a brief summary of its modern history, for which we are chiefly indebted to Mr. Elphinstone. At the commencement of the last century, the two principal tribes of the Afghans were the Ghiljies and the Abdallies, or, as they are now called, the Doorraunees. In 1722 the Ghiljies overthrew the dynasty of the Sōfees in Persia, and the last monarch of that race resigned his crown to their chief Mahmood. Five years afterwards, Nadir Shah delivered Persia from the Afghan yoke: and for a very accurate account of this revolution we may refer to Fraser's romance of 'The Kuzzilbash.' Two brothers, of the Doorraunee tribe, belonging to the division of it called Suddozes, entered Nadir's service, and were highly esteemed by that conqueror. After Nadir's murder, Ahmed Khan, the ablest of these brothers, withdrew from the Persian army, accompanied by the Afghan contingent, seized thirty lacs of rupees belonging to his late master, at Kandahar, and, being thus supplied with men and money, founded an independent kingdom.

Of Timur Shah, the son and successor of Ahmed, nothing more need be said than that he left behind him several children, five of whom became competitors for his inheritance. The aid of the powerful head of the Baurickzye tribe secured the victory, in the first instance, to Shah Zemaun; but this monarch put his benefactor to death, and thus rendered the Baurickzyes his enemies. Futeh Khan, who succeeded his father in the chieftainship of the tribe, incited Prince Mahmood to dethrone Zemaun. The revolt was successful; Zemaun was conquered, captured, and blinded. Mahmood's attachment to the Sheeah sect gave offence to the Afghans, most of whom are Soonnees: they deposed him, and placed Shah Soojah on the throne, who, with unusual tenderness, spared his brother's life and eyes. It was to Soojah that Mr. Elphinstone went as ambassador in the year 1809. The treaty which was then negotiated was rendered ineffectual by a new revolution. Futeh Khan restored Mahmood to the throne, and Shah Soojah sought safety in flight. He subsequently made several attempts to recover his kingdom, but was invariably defeated.

Shah Soojah has written an account of his life, and we have seen some extracts from the MS., copied by his permission. He appears to be a man of kindly feelings, and good temper, but rather deficient in promptitude and nerve. Runjeet Singh, with whom he took refuge, robbed him of all his jewels, especially the *Koh-e-Noor*, or "mountain of light," a diamond of immense value. With some difficulty he escaped from Lahore in 1815, and fled into the British dominions, where he has since subsisted on a pension liberally granted by the government for his support.

Mahmood, restored to a throne which he was unfit to occupy, made his son Kamraun governor of Kandahar, and appointed Futeh Khan his grand vizier. Kamraun, jealous of the Afghan nobleman—who deserved the title of king-maker rather better than the English Earl of Warwick—contrived to get the vizier into his power, and deprived him of sight; and he was subsequently put to death by order of Mahmood. This ingratitude and cruelty drove the whole Baurickzye tribe into rebellion. The brothers of Futeh Khan deprived Mahmood of the greater part of his dominions, which they shared among themselves. The Shah fled with his son Kamraun to Herat. Several minor revolutions followed, and

Mahmood finally died of a broken heart, caused by the treason of his son Kamraun.

The Baurickzye brothers, with perhaps the exception of Dost Mohammed Khan, the present sovereign of Caubul, are incapable of ruling the country. Under their administration the Afghans have been deprived of many rich provinces by Runjeet Singh, including Moultaun and the Vale of Cashmere; while their mutual jealousies have involved the country in petty and harassing civil wars. Were not Shah Kamraun, the ruler of Herat, deservedly odious for his manifold crimes, the attachment of the Afghans to the regal tribe of the Suddozes would have long since restored him to the throne of his ancestors.

This historical explanation was necessary, to enable the reader to comprehend the present political state of Afghanistan: a few words will show its relation to the affairs of Persia. When Napoleon was eager to strike a blow at the British power in the East, he saw that the aid of Persia was essential to his success, and easily engaged Futeh Ali Shah to second his designs. As a counterpoise, the English negotiated an alliance with the Afghans. But Napoleon's hands were fettered by the treaty of Tilsit: he became the ally of the Russians, and, consequently, the foe of the Persians; and the English once more regained their ascendancy at the court of Teheran. The Emperor Nicholas, who seems to have inherited the policy of Napoleon, having gained greater sway over the Persian cabinet than ever the French possessed, it has again become our interest to pay attention to Afghanistan. Reproaches have been very freely exchanged between political parties respecting the decline of British influence in Persia: in truth, no party is to blame. The Shah of Persia will employ Russians to discipline and command his forces, simply because for the pay of an English subaltern he can obtain the services of some dozen Russians; and he fears a threat from St. Petersburg more than from London, or even Calcutta, because, before we could commence harassing his sea coast—about which, by the way, he cares very little—the Russians would be in possession of his capital.

Capt. A. Burnes made strong representations, both to the British government and to the East India Company, on the importance of establishing a residency at Caubul: he was vigorously seconded by the Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone, and by a powerful commercial body, anxious to open Central Asia to British enterprise. In the latter end of the year 1836, Capt. Burnes was appointed envoy to the court of Caubul. While the ambassador was on his road, Dost Mohammed Khan became involved in war with Runjeet Singh, and Capt. Burnes received full authority to mediate a peace between two powers, whose hostilities would endanger the tranquillity of our frontiers. Lord Auckland's proclamation announces the failure of this negotiation, but gives not a hint respecting the cause, which we shall endeavour to supply from other sources.

Dost Mohammed Khan, the head of the Baurickzye tribe, and his brothers, well aware of the national attachment to the regal tribe of the Suddozes, live in constant fear of Shah Kamraun on one side, and Shah Soojah on the other. Kamraun appeared the more formidable on account of his occupying Herat; but as this city properly belongs to the Persian province of Khorassan, the Afghan brothers instigated the Shah to attempt its recovery. The Russian advisers of the Persian monarch seconded a counsel which would render him more dependent on their court, and Herat, as we know, was closely besieged. It is also known that the place was bravely defended, and that the Shah was forced to make an inglorious retreat.

But this war has increased the unpopularity of the Baurickzye brothers; their alliance with the Sheeahs, and their supporting the Persians, have given great offence to their Soonnee subjects, and rendered a civil war in Afghanistan probable, if not inevitable. All parties, save that of the Baurickzyes, seem agreed that nothing but the restoration of the Suddozye dynasty can secure the tranquillity of the country, and save it from dismemberment; the choice then lies between Shah Kamraun and Shah Soojah, and the British government has decided in favour of the latter, with, we have reason to believe, the approbation of the great majority of the Afghan nation, and the express consent of Shah Kamraun himself.

The chances of the war are all on our side; the Afghans have shown at Herat that their proverbial superiority over the Persians is still maintained, and that they will never submit to Sheeah rule. Runjeet Singh will be glad to round and secure his eastern frontiers; the Amers of Sindh will have their independence recognized. The only source from which trouble may be anticipated, is the difficulty of reconciling the claims of Kamraun and Soojah, and these, we fear, will not be quite so easily managed as the Indian cabinet seems to suppose.

From the sketch we have given, it is not difficult to unravel the entire system of Russian intrigue. The cabinet of St. Petersburg is well aware that a direct invasion of India by a Russian army is scarcely within the verge of possibility. It is not deceived by the examples of Mahmood of Ghizni, Baber and Nadir Shah, which, with strange forgetfulness of circumstances, have perplexed several European politicians. These conquerors owed their entire success to their light cavalry; the English were almost the first who taught the Asiatics the value of infantry. To attempt British India with the same species of force that Nadir brought against the empire of Delhi, would be not less absurd than attacking a park of artillery with bows and arrows. But it seemed possible to urge an army of Persians and Afghans forward to our frontiers, and to effect a union between the courts of Teheran and Caubul, grounded on their mutual hostility to the Suddozyes; and we know that a Russian agent—a Captain Veitkovich, a Pole,—has been for some time resident in Caubul, endeavouring to effect and secure this anxiously desired object. Heraut was a tempting bait to the Shah; the removal of Kamraun was even a greater object to Dost Mohammed Khan. The defeat of the Persians before Heraut has baffled the entire scheme, and the restoration of Shah Soojah will effectually prevent any attempts for its renewal.

It would be useless to conceal that all these circumstances will lead to an extension of our diplomatic and military relations, which may involve measures and expenses not yet contemplated. The restoration of Shah Soojah will probably be no difficult matter, but to secure his throne, in a country distracted by civil wars for more than a quarter of a century, will require great skill and much time. Afghanistan was not only broken into fragments by the Baurickzye brothers and Shah Kamraun, but by the chiefs of several tribes who have established their independence. Many, perhaps most, of these will, in the first instance, proffer allegiance, but the value of their loyalty and the endurance of their submission are not within the compass of calculation. If our Indian forces are to become an army of occupation, and remain in Caubul until Soojah is perfectly secure, no man can venture to predict the length of its stay. The claims of the kings of Caubul to the kingdom of Balkh, will excite the jealousy of the Uzbeks and Turkomans; it will be necessary for us to have

diplomatic agents at Balkh, Bokhara, and perhaps even at Khiva. We have already found it advisable to send missions to Keelaut and Beloochistan. Thus, this movement, so far from being confined to a single object, must embrace the complicated politics of all Central Asia, whose ever-varying relations render the whole course of diplomacy difficult and uncertain.

It is the design of the Indian government to make politics subservient to the interests of commerce. With allied powers on both sides of the Indus, there would be nothing to impede the steam navigation of that river, and thus profitable marts would be opened for British manufactures, which are eagerly sought after by the people of Central Asia, but are at present sold at more than a hundred per cent. above the cost price at Bombay, owing to the difficulties and dangers of land carriage. "What was the good of your revolution?" said a traveller to a Mexican peasant. "See," he replied, "this shirt; in old times it would have cost me eight dollars—I now get it for one." This is precisely the kind of revolution which the Asiatics can understand; and if such results accompany the restoration of Shah Soojah, it will do more to secure his throne than a crore of rupees or a myriad of bayonets.

Lieut. Conolly, in an able appendix, examines all the chances of a Russian invasion of India. We shall not follow him through the details, but confine ourselves to a few general observations, which will enable our readers to estimate the probabilities themselves. It seems extremely doubtful whether the cabinet of St. Petersburg has yet formed any definite plan for attacking the British power in the East; vague projects have undoubtedly been formed, and some experiments tried, on the chances of support from the Turkomans and the Persians. The Russians cannot have both, for no nations are more inveterately hostile to each other; they must choose their bases of operations either on the eastern or western side of the Caspian. Supposing that they selected the eastern side, and made Khiva their base of operations, they must civilize the Cossacks and Turkomans, establish a chain of magazines in the desert between the Caspian and the Oxus, restore the ancient traffic on that river, and reconcile the feuds between hostile tribes, before they could advance to the foot of the Hindú Kúsh, and attempt the passes of that mountain chain. This course, therefore, would require so much time, labour, and money, with the chances of all being spent in vain, that we think it unnecessary to enter further upon its examination.

The second line, through Persia, is more practicable, and it appears that Russia has been attempting the necessary preliminaries. It would lead the Russians to make Heraut the base of their operations, which they might probably have done, had it been captured by the Shah. But even on this line Russia would have to contend against great and obvious disadvantages. Her hold on the Transcaucasian provinces is anything but secure; two or three cargoes of arms and ammunition sent to the eastern coasts of the Black Sea, would suffice to cut off all communication between Russia and Persia: even now the Circassians, with their imperfect means, make the passage of convoys very insecure. But Persia itself might be rendered an unsafe line of communication. From among the hundred and more descendants of the late Shah, one could readily be found to dispute the throne with the reigning sovereign, if England gave a hint that she would countenance the attempt. With the Circassians in their rear, and civil war raging along the whole line of march from Tabreez to Heraut, the advance of the Russians would be far too perilous to be hazarded by the most Quixotic government that ever existed.

In conclusion, we may remark that the pre-

sent movements are not so much a new course of policy, as the resumption of the plans formed by the Indian government previous to the inopportune mission of Sir Harford Jones. The object is to cover our frontiers by a powerful allied kingdom, such as Afghanistan was, and may yet again become; to substitute a brave and faithful people as our outposts, for the cowardly and perfidious court of Teheran. Nothing ever tended so much to weaken the moral power of England in Asia, as our subsidizing the late Shah to attend to his own interests: surrounding nations regarded us as tributaries to a power which they despised.

Since writing the above, private letters have reached us from India. It is gratifying to know that they fully justify the view we have here taken. The subject is, indeed, so ably discussed in one of them, from the banks of the Indus, that we shall publish it almost entire, that our readers may understand the feelings and hopes of those about to be engaged in the war.

"We have sometimes wished for war, and war we are now to have—war with the Persians and Afghans, and perhaps the Russians; nay, the Burmese and the Nepaulese too are in hostile attitudes: never mind, we have strength enough for them all, and are in capital trim and high spirits. The Persians—don't let proud and classic names dismay you—are no longer the people who perplexed the Greeks and repulsed the Romans; they are grievously degenerate; sunk in sloth and enfeebled by dissension; the whole nation lies a ready prey like a dead carcass to the vulture of Russia. They are brave, but they want the united discipline and the united minds which make bravery available on the field of battle. The Afghans are a more dangerous enemy. Their country is rich and large, all the men are warlike and all horsemen, and can mount a million strong it is said at the sound of their prince's trumpet. But they are a divided people; in the day of trial they are more likely to cry "Shah Soojah" than "Dost Mohammed," and we are depending a little on this awakening feeling. Shah Soojah, the descendant of the prince who seized the land of the Afghans on the death of Nadir Shah, but was pushed from his throne by three bold brethren, his subjects, who seized the land, defeated him in some stern battles, and seated themselves on the thrones of Peshawar, Kandahar, and Caubul.

"These bold usurpers did not reign unmolested; Prince Kamraun, the nephew of the exiled king, seized Heraut and held it in defiance of the three brothers, whom personal animosities enfeebled, and in spite of the artillery of the Persians, directed by one of their princes; while Runjeet Singh, with seventy thousand men, disciplined by French officers, at his back, marched against Peshawar, and, without destroying the king, compelled him to acknowledge his authority. When the three brothers accommodated their differences, they felt that Shah Kamraun on one side and Runjeet Singh on the other were depriving them of the fairest portions of an empire which they called their own: fear of England alone kept them from warring at once, single handed, with both those enemies; they therefore formed, it is said, a league with Burma, Nepal, and Persia, to dethrone Kamraun, upset Runjeet Singh, and crush our supremacy in India. This hostile array from the coast of Arracan to the mouths of the Indus we shall break through as easily as an eagle breaks through a cobweb; but a power as ambitious as it is warlike, and powerful as it is ambitious—and which our rulers here refrain from naming—is supposed to be pushing those armed multitudes upon us: need I say this is Russia, who has already threatened to dictate peace to England in Calcutta. The Russians, however, have a long way to come, though it is said they are approaching Balkh, and they will find crushed friends and triumphant enemies when they arrive.

"In the meanwhile, let me show you the scene of the coming war: if you will suppose that you are standing on the side of the Sutledge, where our troops are now assembling, I will point it out to you. Look direct towards Constantinople: there Lahore, the capital of the Punjáb, lies in the line, one hundred good miles before you; farther on runs the all but un-

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fordable Indus; on your right stands Peshawar, some three hundred and fifty miles off; Caubul, distant five hundred miles; while towards the left you may observe Kandahar, five hundred miles from the Sutledge, and straight before you Heraut close on the Persian frontier, eight hundred and odd miles from where you stand. Now if you look far to the left of the line, towards Constantinople, you will see a small speck in the Persian Gulf, little more than a hundred miles from Shiraz; it is the Isle of Karat, occupied by British troops ready to penetrate into the heart of Persia, while the army from India advances through Afghanistan, dethroning one king and restoring another, till they reach the borders of Persia, and dictate peace on their own terms. This is no imaginary view of things; the hearts of the Afghans are with their own old line of princes; and though the three usurping brethren are bold and able men, they will not find it practicable to hold out a long resistance, with a divided people, in opposition to such forces as are gathering against them.

"You must not imagine that we have courted this war; on the contrary, we have done all to avoid it that honour could do. When Persia made war on Heraut, when Dost Mohammed attacked Runjeet Singh, and when alliances were formed on all sides against us, we sent Macneill to deal with the Persians, and Burnes to remonstrate with his friend the king of Caubul; their gentle words were answered by fierce ones, their entreaties with threats; a Russian envoy, real or pretended, outbid us in arms, in men, and in money, and we were obliged to draw a reluctant sword in defence of our empire and our allies. From the siege of Heraut you may estimate the military skill of the Persians; it is a place formidable neither by nature nor art, yet it has held out for more months than it ought have done days against the best army they could muster,—conducted by the science too, it is said, of Russian engineers. When they had beaten down the wall, they were repulsed from the breach by a counter-battery, raised in the moment of extreme peril, by a more scientific head than an Afghan one. The slaughter, it is said, was severe. Should the King of Caubul call in the Russians in his despair, the war may be fierce and long; before that hour comes, the Russians may find something to do nearer their own territory than on the banks of the Indus.

"From the mouths of the Indus to where the Sutledge is lost among the clouds of the Himalaya, all the nations are either in alliance with us or under our control. A large portion of this border country has been ceded to us by princes who preferred safety and prosperity under our sway to a precarious independence near such neighbours as Dost Mohammed or even Runjeet Singh. This large domain we are rapidly improving and civilizing—improving by making roads and bridges, and turning towns of mud into brick; and civilizing, by repressing violence and wrong, and substituting subordination and peace. The wildest portion of the people are sufficiently wild; they surpass all pilferers in their dexterity of stealing cattle; they will carry them off from beneath the watchers' noses, muffle their feet in cloth, or hurry them over the hardest grounds, so that no impression can be made that a witness can swear by—I say swear by, for your American savage, who can track a man by his footstep for a hundred miles, is outdone by 'the traw' of our Sutledge; he can distinguish the print of one cow's foot from another; and such is the confidence reposed in him that his oath to the identity of such footmark is held good in the courts of law. Of this territory Loodiana may be called the capital; it is a growing place. Simla, where our Governor General is just now, sits some two thousand feet higher among the hills, while still farther down than Loodiana, stands Ferozpoor, the key of our commerce on the Sutledge, now filling with armed bands gathering for the strife, and in the hands of an officer of engineers, who is constructing quays for the reception of shipping, magazines for our military stores, barracks for our soldiers, and securing the whole by bulwarks and batteries. We have had fierce heats, heavy rains, much thunder and lightning, and darkness which for many days concealed the sun; but the weather is now fine, the five rivers will soon be fordable, and our troops will move against Caubul."

The only comment we need add is supplied

by the latest intelligence from Constantinople, whence it appears that the Russians are not at Balkh, nor likely to get there; the Persian army is dispersed, with little prospect of being again organized; the Persian finances are exhausted, with small chance of their being recruited, and Mohammed Ali Shah is in a state of helpless perplexity from which nothing short of a miracle can relieve him.

Report on Steam Navigation to India, via the Red Sea. Presented to the Committee. By W. D. Holmes, Civil Engineer. Weale.

Letter to the Chairman and Deputy Chairman of the East India Company on Steam Navigation to India. By Lord William Bentinck. Prospectus of the India Steam-ship Company by the Cape of Good Hope.

Prospectus on the East India Inland Steam Navigation Company.

Prospectus of the British and American Steam Navigation Company.

Prospectus of the Bahia Steam Navigation Company.

Prospectus of the Mexican Pacific Ocean Steam Navigation Company.

Prospectus of the Trans-Atlantic Steam Navigation Company.

Prospectus of the South American Steam Navigation Company.

WITH these and many similar documents before us, and standing, as we do, on the threshold of a new year, the prospects which open to us are of an extraordinary character, to which, in the retrospect of the past, we can find no parallel. Steam navigation, hitherto in its infancy, is now rapidly advancing to gigantic maturity; and the future achievements of the infant Hercules may readily and safely be predicted from the growing feats of the athletic youth. It is manifest that this globe of ocean and earth is about to be enclosed in a continuous network of communications by steam. The wild waves around the southern cape of Africa are to be the bearers of a line of communication with Eastern India, as regular as a steam-coach on a railway; the mazes of the Coral Islands, in the sleepy Pacific, will soon be threaded by the tracks of British steam-vessels; the plash of their paddles will break on ears that have hitherto only heard the gentle ripple made by the paddle of the Indian in his canoe; British manufactures, British literature, British science, and British civilization, will rapidly cover the remotest regions of Africa, Asia, and Oceania; the blessings and advantages that now serve to distinguish one portion of the world from another, will be equally diffused, and mutually communicated from nation to nation, and each enjoy the benefits of all; Peace, and Civilization, hand in hand, will spread over the earth, and draw together, into one great community, the parted families of the human race; and "when many shall run to and fro, knowledge shall be increased, until it cover the face of the whole earth, as the waters cover the channel of the deep."

These are happy prospects for the human race. We cannot consider them in any degree Utopian. The facility and frequency of intercourse by steam, producing intimate social connexions, reciprocation of benefits, and mutual dependence, will inevitably tend to unite and assimilate nations now remote in distance and opposite in character. It is closeness and frequency of intercourse that most strongly cements and most surely maintains friendship and good-will between nations, as between individuals.

While the blessings of closer union amongst the separate states of the human commonwealth will thus produce the welfare and happiness of the whole race, Great Britain must necessarily, for a long period of time, be the principal instru-

ment of extending and maintaining this gigantic system of communication. She alone possesses the requisite machinery, workshops, artificers, enterprise, public spirit, and capital, for so stupendous an undertaking. Indeed, the greater part, even of the civilized world is already dependent on her workshops and building-yards for their ordinary means of transport. The Rhine is principally navigated by English steam-boats. Two companies on the Rhone navigate its waters in English steam-boats, and are about to quadruple the number of their vessels. The Tagus, the Douro, and the Guadalquivir are stemmed by British prows. On the Cisalpine and Transalpine lakes the English traveller hears the well-known sounds communicated from the captain to his boatswain, and by him transmitted to the English engineer of this English-built steam-vessel, in which he makes his foreign tour—"Stop her!" "Back her!" "Set on ahead!" and he fancies, for a moment, that he has met with countrymen on deck, till he discovers that they have exhausted the vocabulary of their English in those few words, which there are no terms in their own language to represent. From His Imperial Highness of all the Russias, down to the no less ambitious Pacha of the Nile—including even the wealthy Philippe of France, and the haughty seignor of the Ottoman Porte—all, in a great measure, depend on the building-yards and engine-works of the Thames, the Mersey, and the Clyde, for their means of transport, merchandise, and war. The peace and security of the high seas, so long preserved by the dominion of the British flag, floating from the lofty pines of her wooden bulwarks, will soon be infinitely more strongly and unchangeably secured by the superiority and power of an invincible steam navy.

These sanguine anticipations of the future, into which our present position at the commencement of a new epoch of time, has, rather unexpectedly, and perhaps unwarrantably, beguiled us, are not altogether disconnected from the principal subject of this paper, and of the documents we have placed at the head of it. Not contented with her recent conquests in the west, steam is about to extend her dominion to the far east. Mercantile companies are about to undertake enterprises of a gigantic extent, such as even governments of great power and wealth have hitherto only dreamed of. Steam-vessels, of a size and power perfectly enormous, are about to be provided: a capacity of 2000 tons is now suggested as the only profitable and practicable size, and these suggestions are borne out by minute and detailed calculations. One of the companies proposes to sail from Plymouth to Calcutta round the Cape, in 55 days; and another, by the Red Sea, to reach Ceylon in 36, Madras in 40, Bombay in 42, and Calcutta in 43 days.

When the plans of these companies shall have been matured, we shall return to the consideration of the merits of the schemes they may severally propose for the accomplishment of their peculiar objects. In the meantime, as an enormous capital is about to be staked on the great problem of steaming the high seas, we shall devote the present paper to the consideration of the best means for advancing, with safety, on the present rapid extension of Steam Navigation. In approaching this difficult field of anticipatory or predictive discussion, we shall trench on the ground which was taken up by Mr. Scott Russell at the recent meeting of the British Association; but as our limits did not permit us to give more than a brief abstract of that part of the Saturday's proceedings, we shall avail ourselves of his views, so far as they suit our purpose, without any further apology to our readers.

Since, then, it is universally admitted that steam navigation is still in its infancy, and that rapid improvement and great extension are confidently to be looked for, we are stopped at once in the outset, by the question, from what quarter are they to be looked for? and are any very great improvements possible? We do not hesitate to reply at once, that we do think very material improvements are not only possible, but are perfectly within our reach. But the precise quarter in which we are to look for them, is a matter open to considerable debate. Have we already exhausted the sources of known principles and applications? Do we now patiently wait for the discovery of some new principle of movement—some new element—some new law of nature and of matter? Are we to bend all our exertions to the discovery of some unheard-of mode for condensing fuel—some discovery of the essence of heat, so that we shall be able to pack up, in little phials, as much power as would carry a first-rate man-of-war round the world and back again, and, like the homeopaths, who make a millionth of a grain of sugar do the work of a pound of epsom, make the work of a ton of coals arise from the expansion of a drop of liquid gas? Are we to wait until the force of electricity, galvanic or thermal, shall have been so far developed and controlled, as to supersede any less ethereal or more ponderous powers, and enable us to sail along a sunbeam through sea and air? Are we to wait until the smoke burners have effected their saving of 30 per cent. on the fuel by their patent methods of combustion, and the inventors of rotary engines saved 50 per cent. by their improvements, and the contrivers of new boilers 25 per cent. by theirs—until the mercurial evaporators, the patent condensers, and patent paddles having each effected from 20 to 30 per cent. of saving, there shall remain so much less than nothing as our expenditure of power, that it will require all we possess of contrivance and ingenuity, after machinery has once been set a-going, to succeed in stopping it? Are we to wait until some or all of these schemes, of which we hear so much to-day, and so little to-morrow, and of which each struts its hour upon the stage of public notice, and then retires behind the scene again, to come out and play its part in some new farce—are we to wait upon the success of some of these manifold, specious, and hollow plausibilities? or are we, in equally hasty scepticism, to give up all hope of doing more than has already been accomplished? We reply, that our fixed conviction is, that we have still a wide field of valuable, safe, and extensive improvement within our reach. We are glad to know, that we are yet a long way from having exhausted the resources of applying approved and well-known principles to subserve to the further advancement of steam navigation; that we are not yet thrown back on the foolish schemes of the sanguine projectors who infest and impede the search of true and meritorious invention; but that we have still ample resources in sound principles and ascertained practical experience for attaining a state of perfection in steam navigation, far transcending everything we have yet conceived.

The first great point in which we have not yet carried out our knowledge of established principles to the extension of practical navigation, is in *size*. As was strongly urged by Mr. Russell, we have to look to improvements of very great extent in our steam navigation, from the increase of size alone, without the introduction of any new principle whatsoever. The causes which conspire to give the advantage to a very large vessel are manifold. Suppose you double the dimensions of a vessel, making her twice as long as before, and in the same proportion broader and deeper, you

will doubtless have increased the resistance to be overcome in propelling the larger vessel; but the increased resistance will by no means keep pace with the increased power of opposing that resistance. By doubling the breadth or beam of the vessel, you have certainly doubled the quantity of water she will have to displace, and by doubling her depth in the water you again double the resistance; but then it is to be kept in mind, that by doubling the length of the vessel, (and by doing so, you have doubled her capacity of carrying a load and a powerful engine,) that very additional length, instead of having increased, in a corresponding degree, the resistance of the water to its motion, has actually diminished that resistance, and that to so high a degree, as to have counterbalanced altogether that part of the resistance arising from increased breadth; for it should be remembered, that the resistance a vessel experiences in going through the water is proportioned, not merely to the square of the absolute velocity of the vessel through the water, but also to the square of the relative velocity with which it is thrown aside, and which is diminished in proportion as the length is increased. The resistance, therefore, to a larger vessel, arises only from the increased quantity of fluid displaced by the increased section passing through the water. Now, it is to be recollected, that the increase of length, of breadth, and of depth, do each and all contribute directly to her buoyant power, or capacity of carrying more powerful engines, proportionally greater supplies of fuel, and greater quantity of cargo; so that while the resistance is increased only by doubling the breadth and depth, or, in a four-fold proportion, the power and capacity, by doubling all the dimensions, are increased in length, breadth, and depth, or in an eight-fold proportion. So that, in enlarging dimensions, a vessel of *eight times the capacity or tonnage* of another, will only require for the same, or a rather greater velocity, *four times the power*, giving a saving of one-half as regards the power, consumption of coals, and capacity of carrying goods.

Suppose a vessel of 300 tons just capable of carrying her engines, fuel, and passengers, but without cargo, then a vessel of 2,400 tons would carry engines and fuel that would do more than the same distance with more than the same velocity, and carry eight times as many passengers, and have besides room for 1,200 tons of profitable cargo, instead of none at all, as in the former instance. But the saving is more than this. The waves which strike a large vessel are not greater in size than those which strike a small one: proportionally, they are much less. The opposing force of the wind too is in a less ratio than the tonnage of the vessel; so that in a large vessel, the effects of the weather and of the sea are rapidly diminished with the increasing size; the machinery too acts in the water more steadily; so that on a vessel of eight times the tonnage, the resistances of the winds and waves are less than half of what they would have been, had they increased in the same ratio as the tonnage. Thus, the larger vessel is safer, surer, sails better to time, is drier, easier in a sea, and every way preferable to the smaller one.

There are also other circumstances in the machinery itself which render the use of large vessels in every way more expedient and more profitable than small ones. A large engine, bulk for bulk, is cheaper, and does its work better than a small one. The friction and adhesion increase with size in only a very small proportion; and where there is proper machinery for the purpose, the relative accuracy of large work is much greater than small. The loss of power arising from radiation of the heat of boilers,

pipes, and cylinders, also diminishes rapidly as the size of a steam-engine increases; and we are still very far from having reached those limits at which the weight of iron increases so rapidly with its size as to lead us to anticipate its breaking down with its own weight. Suppose then that a vessel of 300 tons displacement has hitherto been found capable of maintaining a velocity of ten miles an hour for a given distance, by means of engines of 150 horse power, requiring 150 tons of coals, to transport her to a distance of 3,000 miles, without capacity to take any cargo at all. Let us now proceed to inquire how much power and fuel would be required in a vessel of eight times that tonnage, or of double her length, breadth, and depth. In the first place, instead of eight times the power, let us suppose her only to have four times the power, or two engines of 300 horse power each, amounting to 600 horse power, and allowing proportionate fuel, amounting to 600 tons, then the same distance would, according to the simple calculation we have just explained, be done in rather less time, with much greater safety and regularity, and with eight times the number of passengers; so that, even if we suppose there to be no cargo at all, the profits would be doubled by passengers alone; but there would remain, over and above, of redundant profit, the freight upon 1,200 tons of cargo. Such are some of the great improvements in economy, security, expenditure, and profit in steam power, by the practical application to it of well-known and established scientific principles, which have been fully and satisfactorily promulgated at our scientific meetings, and are soon, we hope, about to be acted on by some of our enterprising British merchants.

So much for magnitude—now for the next point, which is the possibility of rational and safe improvement in the *Structure and Material of our new Steam Ships*. And here we meet at once with the very important question at present vehemently discussed, viz. *Iron or Wood?* It is now nearly twenty years ago that we set foot in the first iron boat we had ever seen. It was a rowing gig, appropriately named the *Vulcan*, and no less appropriately manned by six stout young engineers. What astonished us on pulling alongside, was to observe that when empty it did not appear to draw more than half an inch of water. Since that time, steam-boats, pleasure yachts, and packets of iron have become so common as to excite little wonder. There is, however, much misconception abroad in reference to the merits of iron and timber ships. Both have their strong, their bigoted partisans and enemies. Those, on the one hand, who advocate iron, are wont to talk of its buoyancy, of its lightness, of its small draught of water, of its tightness, &c.; as if there existed in the very name of the material some magic like that of the fairy with the woodman's axe, charming it up to the top of the water, and as if a given weight of material in an iron ship would sink it less than in a wooden one, or as if there were some principle of buoyancy in an iron ship by which a given weight would draw less water than in any other. All this is foolish fiction. Surely no man needs to be told at the present day, that, make your vessel of what material you choose, and load her with what you will, she will sink weight for weight to the same depth of water, whatever be the material of which she is formed. The naval man again, who has served in the wooden walls of old England, looks on the iron ship as a joke. What! go to sea in a tea-kettle! go to the bottom like a stone! are the first expressions of his contempt. Alas! for the old English oak.

We admit at once, and fully, the many advantages of iron steam ships. But the advantages

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are not to be met on the surface—they lie a little deeper; and the circumstances that determine the advantage require to be more maturely weighed, and a multitude of precautions considerably adopted, in order to justify a preference, in any particular case.

What, then, are the peculiarities of iron as a material for steam ships, that give it a preference over timber? Timber has, first, its principal strength only in one direction. From the reedy, fibrous, vesicular structure of the vegetable, it resists a distending force with great strength along the fibres, but offers a very slender opposition to any force that would tear the vegetable fibres asunder so as to split or splinter it. To remedy this evil, there must always be two sets of timber in transverse directions. The planks of a ship are laid with their fibres in one direction, and the timbers are laid with their fibres at right angles, for the purpose of giving strength laterally, and binding them together. But iron plates are nearly equally strong in both directions, so that if we conceive a plank of wood obtained of strength equal to iron lengthways, and a second plank procured of the same size, with fibres in the lateral direction, the one plate of iron would have nearly the same tensile strength as both united. If, therefore, we substitute for the planking of the vessel a shell of iron, the cross-timbers become unnecessary, their place being supplied by the lateral strength of the metal.

The next peculiarity of iron is the perfection and strength of its joinings. To make a wooden ship water-tight, its parts are severely strained—in caulking its planking, a very acute wedge-shaped tool forces the oakum by a mallet in between the planks, which only retain it by a strain; and from the disunion of the planks a vessel begins to leak whenever she encounters a heavy gale. The rivetting of the iron plates effects a thorough union of them of such a nature as to render the joints closer than those of the newest ship, and instead of remaining detached, like planks, they become integral parts of one homogeneous whole, equally strong in every direction. A well-built iron vessel is almost bottle-tight.

The facility with which iron can be formed into any shape, and made of any size, is its next recommendation. Timber must be selected with much care and at great expense, in order to suit those parts of the vessel where it is to be placed, and the form of the vessel is in some measure trammelled by the shape of timber that can be readily obtained for the purpose. It is also cut out at great expense, rendering what remains of comparatively little value. On the other hand, every scrap of iron can be wrought up to any required form, and not a pound be lost, but be made available to any purpose, while all the plates, and knees, and bolts, and straps, have that form given to them by which they are kept in their place. Facility, economy, strength of construction, appear then to favour the iron.

Diminution of danger from fire may perhaps be regarded as not one of the least advantages of iron ships.

From the great tensile strength of iron, from the perfection of its joinings, and from the want of transverse timbers, it follows that the hull of an iron vessel will both be abundantly strong and tight, although only of half the weight of a timber vessel; hence the difference may be supplied in cargo, engines and fuel, or a great saving of space effected.

Finally, if surface condensation be adopted, the cold surface of the vessel exposed to the water may be used for a condenser by having an inner lining or jacket over the part so used, sufficiently stayed asunder at small and frequent intervals.

All, however, that we have said as likely to follow from the extensive introduction of iron vessels, must be taken with great caution; and if very great precautions are not adopted in anticipating the many peculiarities of the metallic ships, serious evils will be the consequence.

For example—an iron vessel once met with the following accident:—Going along at full speed, something gave way about the engine—the piston-rod and piston went right down through the bottom of the cylinder and the bottom of the boat, into the sea, leaving its place of exit for the entrance of water: by an extraordinary coincidence, another steam vessel was alongside at that instant, and all were saved! Such an occurrence as this in the middle of the Atlantic or the Bay of Biscay would be rather awkward. Again; an iron vessel touched by accident a stone of considerable size, which perforated her bottom, and she went down instantly—this is rather quick work. These facts are sufficient to point out the necessity of extreme caution in suddenly adopting the metallic ships on the large scale, and lead us to direct our attention to their structure so as to avoid those dangers to which they may be peculiarly liable. Further; the rapidity with which iron ships are corroded by the action of salt water, is a point of interesting research. On this subject the experiments of the British Association, carried on under the direction of Mr. Mallet, of Dublin, (see *Athenæum*, No. 566, p. 630) may be advantageously consulted.

With the view of preventing danger from accidental and local injury to the shell of the vessel, the system of water-tight compartments, already partially adopted, must be carried out to its greatest extent. The subdivision of the hold must be carried to a greater extent than any thing we have yet heard of; so that if by any chance water do find its way into the hold, it shall only fill a small part of the vessel. To do this will be most difficult about the engines. These partitions will, however, have another very great advantage, in the strength and stiffness they will give to the hull of the vessel; it will become like the shell of the nautilus, capable of resisting an enormous external force. We have seen an iron vessel, whose length was ten times her beam, hung on two blocks at her extremities, without sensible flexure in the middle, and without any further means of internal support than her frequent partitions of iron plate.

But there is another point of primary importance, which will give much trouble if not properly provided for, and it is this—the great weight of engines and boilers placed about the centre of the length of the vessel. These produce a depression at the centre, which is resisted sufficiently in a timber vessel, by the great depth of the keelsons and of the bottom of the vessel, but which the thinness of the iron plate will not enable it to withstand. Further, the small quantity of matter in the hull renders it very subject to motion from the action and re-action of the steam and piston in the cylinder. We have noticed the centre of one of the finest iron steam ships rising and falling and twisting under the action of the engine, in a manner both unpleasant to the passenger and very injurious to the shell of the vessel. These and similar evils are only to be guarded against by such a system of framing and tying as the Americans adopt in the very slender hulls of their river boats, and whereby the strain of the machinery becomes “self-contained,” that is to say, is wholly counteracted by the strength of its own framing, and whereby the whole buoyant part of the vessel is made to contribute its own portion to the support of those strains which necessarily result from driving a vessel, from a single point within

it, with great force against a resisting medium. For this purpose Mr. Russell, at the meeting of the Association to which we have alluded, proposed a great central system of framing, or what he called a spine, from its resemblance in structure and function to that part of the skeleton of an animal, by which its principal strength is obtained. As far as we understood him, it appeared to consist of a system of diagonal trussing of great lightness and strength, passing along the centre of the vessel from stem to stern, immediately above the keel, which was to form its lower portion, and reaching as far as the lower or upper deck, and thus occupying little more room than is now required for the deck pillars and masts along the keel. A similar diagonal system was also to be formed between the deck beams and at the bulkheads or partitions of the hull, so as to give strength and unity to the whole in its three dimensions. In a large vessel of iron, some such system must, we think, be indispensable to strength and durability, otherwise the continual slight flexures of the iron will rapidly weaken and nip it through, causing it extensively and suddenly to give way. In a wooden vessel, the intervals between the timbers allow sufficient space for a diagonal framing on the system of Seppings; and therefore some equivalent provision must, as we have pointed out, be substituted when iron is the material employed.

Having now considered the two great points likely to undergo change—viz. the size of steamships, and their structure and material, we next arrive at a subject which is of the highest importance, whatever be the size, structure, or material of the vessel—and it comes before us in the following question:—Is the *peculiar form* of a steam-vessel of much consequence to its velocity, provided only you have sufficient size and power to carry her through the water? Is there *much* to be gained, supposing you attain the best possible form, or is it only some trifling condition of theoretical perfectibility that will be fulfilled? These questions require practical answers.

There are men of considerable reputation who will say, “we care little about shape, only let us have a good strong full vessel that will carry a powerful engine, and *that* will send her through the water.” These persons are of opinion, that, in moving through the water, a vessel carries with her a sufficient quantity of “dead” water to give her *virtually* the best form—a plausible, but fallacious idea: and this maxim, false in theory, is disproved by experience. We have seen vessels of a given form, in which new engines have been successively placed of greater, and still greater, power; and we have never seen the increase of power, without change of form, accomplish the anticipated velocity. We have seen the bow of a vessel altered, so as to give her new lines, and we have seen her velocity greatly increased without increase of power. In fine, there seems every reason to conclude, from general experience, as well as from specific experiment, that, according to Mr. Russell’s views, *there is for each velocity a given form of vessel suited to that velocity*, and that any excessive power placed in a vessel which has not the proper form, will be utterly unable of itself to produce the desired effect—while, on the other hand, with the proper form, a very moderate power will suffice. We happen to know a specific instance, perfectly in point. There are two vessels on the same station, one of 70, and the other of 120 horse power; they are of the same class—viz. passenger vessels. The proportion of power to sectional displacement in the latter, is much greater than in the former; yet, thus unequally matched, and because the one with small power has the form capable of high velocities, and the other, of greater power and size, has the form of the old school, suited only to low velo-

cities, the power fails in giving to the one any greater velocity than to the other, in the proportion of 7 to 12. This, we consider, as one of the most valuable practical experiments that has ever been made; and, as it is seen every day on the River Thames, has done more to convince men of the truth, than anything which has occurred for a long time. It might appear invidious to give the names of the vessels, but every practical man on the Thames knows (or ought to know,) the vessels we mean.

It may next be asked, what is the form of vessel best suited to a given velocity? This is, unhappily, a question not to be answered in words. Drawings, of a complex character, not easily understood by an unprofessional reader, can alone manifest the minute peculiarities of form essential to the results we allude to. Mr. Russell's paper on the form of least resistance,† may, perhaps, communicate some information. It may also be stated generally, that the bottoms of our best wherries afford excellent models, as far as fast sailing goes, for a waterman soon finds out what shape of wherry tires his arm and back least, and accordingly adopts it. But the experiments on a large scale, already referred to, sufficiently prove that form is not of the minor or secondary importance too frequently assigned to it, but that, on the contrary, there is probably one-third part of the expense of fuel and of machinery to be lost or gained by adopting good or bad lines of formation for the vessel, and one-fourth part of increase or diminution of velocity to be attained by the same means.

On the subject of form, there is no dogma more prevalent than this, "that the vessel which is suited for high velocities in river sailing will not do for the sea." It is of importance to investigate this question, without taking too much for granted. It may be quite true, that some vessels suited for the river may not be fit to go to sea; and yet it may, on the other hand, remain equally true, that other vessels, suited for river navigation, may be equally adapted for the navigation of a stormy sea. Indeed, it is a question which admits of wide discussion, whether the very form which is best suited to cleave the still water of a river, with least commotion and resistance, be not the very form best suited to cleave a wave without breaking it, to ride easiest in a gale, and sit steadiest in a broken sea, and work most surely off a lee-shore. It is perfectly true, at the same time, that the same strength, solidity, and power are not required for a river as for a sea steamer; but we are now discussing the question of form merely, not of strength—whether or not the same form which passes most easily through still water may not combine with it all the best qualities of a sea boat. Here again we conceive that the ship-builder may do well to take a lesson from the boat-builder. Is not the Deal gig at once a good rower and a safe sea boat? Are not the pilot boats of the north-east coast of England distinguished at once by their sharpness and their perfect safety? The best open sea boats we have ever set foot in, have been, at the same time, weight for weight, and beam for beam, the easiest through the water. The old dogma regarding a good sea boat was this, "a full bow, and a clean run!"—"a round head, and a mackerel tail!" by which it was intended, that by giving great fullness to the bow of the vessel, she was enabled to rise to a sea, and prevented from sinking in the trough of the wave; while, by the clean run, or the mackerel tail, tapering off towards the stern with very fine lines, the easy passage through the water was perfectly provided for. By these means, it was conceived that the points of safety and velocity

were secured, and, to a certain extent, fullness towards the bow in a sailing vessel enables her to carry canvas; although we should say it was decidedly better to give her beam than bow, even for that purpose. But it is quite different in the steam-ship. In the steam-ship, the maxim to which we are rapidly and inevitably driven, by the experience of continual failures in the opposite principle, is this, that both the entrance (or bow) and the run (or stern part of the body) cannot be too fine; and that of the two, the run should be fuller than the entrance, being just the reverse of the old method at the low velocities. Let us consider a vessel, equally fine at the run and entrance, fore and aft, and full only in the middle, so as to allow her to pass easiest through the water, as regards her sea-going qualities. First, as regards pitching and rending in a sea: surely it is obvious, on the slightest consideration, that a vessel of this shape will be much easier, safer, and drier, than on the old form. She will be easier, because, when the sea falls away from her stem or stern, there will be less left unsupported than if she were full at either, and, consequently, less tendency to pitch. She will be safer, because, the centres of displacement of the fore and after bodies being nearer to the centre of total length, and the centre of gravity in the place of greatest buoyancy and of greatest weight, there will be the least possible strain on the other parts of the vessel; and last of all, as regards dryness, it is manifest, that while a full bow breaks the sea, and throws it right up in the winds, a clean and properly flared bow quietly parts, and peaceably throws it aside. All these points are the invariable results of experience; and it is only the difficulty which exists of communicating the results of the extended experience of a few to the many, that prevents them from being universally recognized, and uniformly acted on. In conclusion, therefore, upon this subject, we think it a maxim established by undoubted experience, that a steam-vessel, with a very fine entrance and run, having very full round lines in the centre body, is not only a form that passes easiest through the water, but is that also of the best, safest, and driest sea boat.

We conceive, therefore, that in the future great undertakings to be commenced and carried out upon the high seas, much of the security and efficiency of the undertaking, as well as the economy in working the vessels, and their speed and durability, will depend on giving them the form best suited to the separation of the water, and to the navigation of the stormy sea; and that these two objects, instead of being incompatible, are identical, and may easily be obtained, if, instead of listening to old and hereditary dogmata, reason, modern science, and experience be listened to, and their dictates obeyed.

Hitherto, we have regarded this subject only from the outside, as spectators of the mighty thing of life dashing along through the waters, in virtue of some powerful machinery operating from within; and we have considered how this mysterious power might be applied with most advantage, in so far as concerned the size, structure, material, and external figure of the vessel containing that propelling power: and the result is, that we have found reason to anticipate improvements of a most extensive nature, by the simple increase of magnitude; by adopting known principles of framing and strengthening in their fullest extent; by the use of iron instead of wood, with the requisite and manifold precautions necessary for safety and success; and, finally, by the adoption of those forms, which improvements in science and increased experience now plainly prescribe. We have yet to examine how far important improve-

ments are to be anticipated in the nature and application of this internal power, in the machinery itself of the marine steam-engine—in the production of the heat from the fuel—in the generation of steam in the boiler, or the mechanism which propels the vessel through the water: this inquiry branches out into various heads, which must be reserved for a future time, when we shall also examine the practical application of the principles now discussed to the immediate demands of the new schemes that are agitated for steam navigation to India, America, and other parts of the world, and which we have placed at the head of this article.

On the Fluctuations in the Production of Gold, considered with reference to the Problems of State Economy. By Alex. von Humboldt.

IN this little tract, obligingly forwarded to us, (and intended, we presume, for some of the literary periodicals of Germany,) we find a curious theme, handled with great neatness and ingenuity. There is not, indeed, disclosed in it much positive novelty, either of fact or speculation; but comprehensive views, variety of topics, considerable sprightliness, and an habitual clearness of expression, capable of making philosophic truth intelligible to the multitude, without sacrificing, in any degree, its dignity or essential strictness—these, the common recommendations of all M. von Humboldt's works, are conspicuous in this; and throw attractions over a subject apparently exhausted in dry reports on bullion and cash payments.

A few centuries ago, it was thought that gold was a production only of the hottest countries. Columbus, when sailing along the coast of Cuba, wrote in his journal,—"to judge by the great heat, this country must be rich in gold." A similar groundless belief, we may remark, respecting the climate prolific of diamonds is maintained in some publications of our own day. Nevertheless, diamonds, and still more abundantly, gold, are now found in the Uralian Mountains, under the 65th degree of north latitude: and the Siberian gold mines, situated on the slopes of the northern ramifications of the Altai Mountains, are daily disclosing new treasures. The increased productiveness of the Siberian gold mines, within the last quarter of a century, stimulates M. von Humboldt to vindicate the statements of Herodotus and Ctesias, the former of whom places, in the heart of Asia, in the country of the Aramaps, mines of gold guarded by griffons; the latter sets somewhere between Persia and India, the auriferous soil which was excavated and exposed to view by ants nearly as large as foxes. But whatever may have been the veritable groundwork of these stories, it appears to us to be out of the power of ingenious erudition to strip them of their vagueness and fabulous character. M. von Humboldt, whose imagination is as active as his reasoning faculty, struggles in vain to give them precision and authenticity. He might, however, have corroborated his conjecture that the gold mines of Central Asia, and the Ural, were wrought in very ancient times, by stating that in all those mines, at the present day, are found relics of antiquity belonging to a people different from those who now possess the soil. The following observations have greater value:—

We learn from the acute researches of Boekh, how, on the opening of the East by the Persian wars, and by the expedition of the great Macedonian to India, gold gradually accumulated in European Greece, so that in the time of Demosthenes, for example, the precious metals had sunk to a fifth of the value which they had in the days of Solon. The stream then ran from east to west, and so copious was the influx of gold, that its relative value to silver, which, in the time of Herodotus, was as 13 to 1, was,

† An abstract of this paper, illustrated by diagrams, will be found in our Report of the proceedings of the British Association, No. 565.

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at the death of Alexander, only as 10 to 1. The less universal were the communications of trade in the ancient world, the greater and more sudden must have been the alterations in the relative value of gold and silver. Thus, in consequence of local accumulations of the precious metals, we find that in Rome, just after the conquest of Syracuse, gold was to silver as 17½ to 1; whereas, under Julius Cæsar, its relative value was, for some time, but as 8½ to 1. The less the quantity of the precious metals actually existing in a country, the more easily can a sudden influx of them occasion these excessive variations of their value. The civilized world is at present assured of stability in the value of the precious metals, by the extent and rapidity of the commerce which establishes their equilibrium, and by the great quantities of gold and silver already collected. After the revolution in Spanish America, the annual production of the precious metals fell, for some years, to one-third of its former amount, yet the oscillations of their relative value, during that period, were slight, and hardly ascribable to the decreased production.

In confirmation of this remark, we may refer to the recent experience of this country. In the course of ten years—from 1817 to 1827—the Bank of England coined 1,294,000 marks of gold, (in value 38,130,000*l.* sterling); and yet this great demand for gold raised its relative value only four-and-a-half per cent. In the present state of the civilized world, so many circumstances operate together on the price of the precious metals, that considerable and partial fluctuations in their relative value are almost impossible. Formerly, however, society felt many shocks from this cause, without knowing whence they came: Bishop Latimer preached his famous sermon before Edward VI., complaining indignantly of the great increase in the prices of all the necessities of life, in the year 1548, just three years after the discovery of the mines of Potosi.

The mass of the precious metals (says M. von Humboldt) which was brought to Europe during the period that elapsed from the discovery of America till the outbreak of the Mexican revolution, was 10,400,000 Castilian marks of gold, (worth about three hundred millions sterling), and 533,700,000 marks of silver; together worth 5,940 millions of piastres. The due allowance being made for the loss of bulk sustained in the process of refinement, the silver taken from the American mines in the above-mentioned period would be sufficient to form a ball, or solid globe, of pure silver, eighty-nine feet in diameter.

It is curious to compare the mass of silver yielded by Spanish America, during 318 years, with the mass of that useful metal, iron, annually wrought by single European states. According to M. von Dechen, a well-informed geologist, globes of pure iron, representing the quantities annually produced, would require, for Great Britain 157, for France 118, and for Prussia 80 feet in diameter.

M. von Humboldt, after calling attention to the circumstance that the fountains of mineral wealth are not perennial; that the richest mines are, in time, exhausted; and that, owing to these alterations in the springs, the stream of riches has sometimes flowed from east to west, and sometimes in the contrary direction; proceeds to show that the world has no cause to dread a lack of gold. From the earliest ages, as soon as one auriferous deposit has ceased to be productive, another has replaced it; and the precious metals, wherever they are found, soon force their way into universal circulation. Contemporaneously with the decline in the productiveness of the Spanish American mines, (which, owing to the energy of some English companies, however, have in some measure recovered their former importance), the gold of the Uralian Mountains began to flow into the European markets. In 1821 the produce of the Ural was about 1000*lb.*

weight; it continued, however, to increase regularly till 1832, when it amounted to 15,200*lb.* (worth about 670,000*l.* sterling). From that time it has slowly declined; but its diminished value has been compensated, since 1834, by the discovery of new gold mines in the Altai, or Altaiin Oola, (that is, in Mongolian, *the gold mountain*). These have gone on increasing in value; so that their produce is now nearly half of that of the Uralian mines, and in 1837 the Russian gold produced was worth 800,000*l.* sterling.

In the United States also, the production of gold increased, in ten years—from 1824 to 1834—from the value of 5,000 to that of 898,000 dollars: from that time it has considerably declined. The gold was found chiefly in North Carolina and Georgia. The amount of the precious metals drawn from the mines of Siberia and of the United States are inconsiderable indeed in comparison with that poured forth from the mines of Mexico and Peru, yet they are sufficient to invalidate the opinion which confines the great deposits of the noble metals to tropical countries. The multiplication of sources also, however feeble they may severally be, obviously lessens the importance which might be attached to the drying up of the great streams of the precious metals, and must tend to quiet the apprehensions of those who contemplate with anxiety a dearth of bullion.

It is impossible to read this little treatise of M. von Humboldt, without feeling an earnest desire to investigate closely the operation of money as an element of national prosperity. It would appear, at first view, that the greater the quantity of money in circulation—the prices of necessities, and the amount of population being supposed to remain unchanged—the greater must be the prosperity of the community. The value of the money in circulation indicates the activity of the traffic which ministers to the comforts of society. But this problem is, in reality, extremely complicated; inasmuch as all the elements vary, from the operation of many circumstances besides those which fall under immediate consideration. We, therefore, recommend it to the care of statisticians, to be carefully analyzed and fitted for application.

The Widow Barnaby. By Mrs. Trollope. 3 vols. Bentley.

As a distinct personage in our fictitious literature, *The Widow* occupies a place as entirely apart and individual, as those held in the Italian drama by Arlecchino and his brother Mimes. We know her points as well as those of the Bobadils and the parasites whom the Elizabethan authors again and again presented on the stage. From the days of Chaucer down to those of Mr. Weller the Elder—who is, indeed, largely experienced in her perilous blandishments—whether we encounter her in Ireland, as Mrs. Brady, figuring away, *vis-à-vis* to the now all but traditional fortune-hunter; or whether, in Scotland, we listen to Burns, the while he encouragingly sings, concerning her:—

The widow can bake, and the widow can brew;
The widow can shape, and the widow can sew;
And many braw things the widow can do—

Then wap at the window, my laddie;

—at all times, and in all places, *The Widow* remains one and unalterable; a blithe and self-seeking pursuer of every man who is marriageable and modest—an unsympathising ogress in the ranks of her own sex—audacious and experienced in planning—resolute in obtaining—turning off her deep designs, when threatened with discovery, as Autolycus turned off the apprehended mischief of his ballad, with a “Whoop! do me no harm, good man!”—making of her weeds a flower-bed under which lurks artifice and device—calling up the memories of a dead husband as a bait to ensnare a living one—loquacious—lynx-eyed—oily-tongued: something

like this, “a mark for mockery,” with whose bereavements satirists, prose and verse, make merry, is *the Widow* in general:—such a personage is the redoubtable Widow Barnaby in particular; conjured up—a jovial New Year’s guest—by the busy wand of Mrs. Trollope.

So frequently has it been our unpleasant task to protest against the purpose and execution of this lady’s works, that it is with great pleasure we recommend our readers to bear the Widow company, fearing nothing. They will be presently enchaind in the interest of the tale; for Mrs. Trollope’s usual merit—that of directness of purpose, and a strong belief and interest in her own subject—does not forsake her in the present instance. It must be objected, however, that, with her usual merit, comes her usual defect. The tale proceeds naturally, cheerfully, steadily, till the third volume is half over; when a harlequinade of forced combinations and improbable adventures commences, wholly needless to the natural conclusion of such a story. The Widow’s earlier achievements are a genuine and amusing comedy, but her closing scenes are broad and not very sprightly farce.

It is not our intention to show where comedy ends, and where farce begins; or to forestall the reader by describing the incidents and situations of the drama through which *The Barnaby* “walks in beauty.” The account of her earliest exploits, as Miss Martha Compton, is almost worthy of the authoress of *‘Pride and Prejudice’*: higher praise we scarcely know how to give. Very droll, too, is the description of her progress to acquaint Aunt Betsy with her coming nuptials; when, at length, her father’s narrowing circumstances, and her own crows’ feet (hinted at, rather than displayed by her mirror), leave her no alternative, but to requite the patient suitor of many years, and condescend to become Mrs. Barnaby. The aforesaid Aunt Betsy is a charming character: in her honesty and truth of heart a far-away cousin to Jonathan Jefferson Whitlaw’s Aunt Cli; but in shrewdness, eccentricity, and refinement to boot, beating the Mississippi squatter’s sister hollow. She it is, who, like a benevolent fairy, peeps out, ever and anon, through the mazes of the story, to assure us that Affection, and Good-fortune, and Justice, have not utterly forsaken the Cinderella of the tale; but are, ultimately, to bring to confusion Selfishness and vulgar Pretension.

Not to become indistinct in our allegories and allusions, it may be added, that the said Cinderella is an orphan niece of Widow Barnaby’s—one of the prettiest and most womanly heroines that a Widow Barnaby was ever permitted to torment: piloting her way through all conceivable straits with a gentleness and a delicacy most loveable to witness, and keeping her conquests with even better taste (because more artlessly) than she makes them—a maiden, in short, well worth the winning of any Colonel Hubert. But we must not—

When invited by the rose,
—stoop to pick the daisy;

or, in our enumeration of Agnes Willoughby’s gifts and graces, forget the more prominent airs and absurdities of her tawdry aunt. Perhaps the sequel of the latter’s most daring matrimonial speculation will be not unwelcome to our readers. Mrs. Barnaby, in the course of a tour of observation, falls in with a lord, at Cheltenham (for *The Widow* dearly loves a watering-place), and resolves to make him a prize—half ruins herself with display for the occasion, and writes him volumes of letters, wherewith he makes himself and friends merry over his champagne dinners. At length the Widow’s air-castle receives a shock by Lord Mucklebury’s sudden departure for London. “He goes and makes no sign:” but she will not admit herself vanquished; she

will follow him for law or victory. On arriving in London, however, her attorney assures her that there is no chance of her recovering damages. We shall now follow the words of the narrative.

"It was during the hours that intervened between her breakfast and this time, that the active-minded Mrs. Barnaby determined upon making a private visit to Mivart's Hotel, in the hope of seeing Lord Mucklebury. * * * Telling Agnes that she had a little shopping to do before their sight-seeing began, and that she would not take her, for fear she should be as stupidly fatigued as on the night before, she mounted to her bedroom, adorned herself in the most becoming costume she could devise, and with somewhat less rouge than usual, that the traitor might see how sorrow worked, set forth on her expedition. Having reached Piccadilly, she called a coach, and in a few minutes was safely deposited before Mivart's door. 'Is Lord Mucklebury here?' . . . she inquired in a voice of authority of the first official she encountered. 'Yes, Ma'am,' was the answer. 'His lordship is at breakfast.' 'I must see him, if you please, directly.' 'Is it by appointment, ma'am?' questioned the discreet waiter, looking at her keenly. . . . 'His lordship is just going to set off, and is too busy, I believe, to see anybody.' 'He is not too busy to see me—I must see him directly!' 'Is it an appointment?' repeated the man, in an accent not the most respectful. 'Yes, it is,' . . . replied the unblushing widow. 'Better call his own man, Joe,' said another napkined functionary, attracted by the appearance of the lady. 'You had better take this sovereign, said Mrs. Barnaby in a whisper. Apparently the man thought this advice the best; for taking the coin with such practised dexterity as hardly to make the action perceptible, he gave the lady a look with his knowing eye that said, 'Follow me!' . . . and slid away among passages and stairs till he had marshalled her to the door of Lord Mucklebury's apartments. Being probably somewhat doubtful whether the office he had performed would be as gratefully requited by the gentleman as by the lady, he waited not to open the door, but saying, 'There's his room,' disappeared, leaving Mrs. Barnaby to announce her ill-used self. She was a little frightened, but still resolute; and, after pausing for one moment to recover breath, threw open the door and entered. The waiter's account was strictly true, for his lordship was at breakfast, and his lordship was packing. *En robe de chambre*, with a cup of coffee in one hand, and a bunch of keys in the other, he was standing beside his valet, who knelt before a carriage-seat he was endeavouring to close. Lord Mucklebury was facing the door, and raised his eyes as it opened. The sight that greeted them was assuredly unexpected, but the nerve with which he bore it did honour to his practised philosophy. 'Mrs. Barnaby!' he exclaimed, with a smile, in which his valet seemed to take a share, for the fellow turned his head away to conceal its effect upon him. . . . 'Mrs. Barnaby! . . . How very kind this is. . . . But I grieve such obliging benevolence should be shown at a moment when I have so little leisure to express my gratitude. . . . My dear lady, I am this instant starting for the continent.' 'I know it, sir. . . . I know it but too well!' replied the widow, considerably embarrassed by his easy tone. . . . 'Permit me, however, to speak to you for one moment before you set out.' 'Assuredly! . . . Place yourself on this sofa, Mrs. Barnaby. . . . How deeply I regret that moments so delightful. . . . Confound you, Rawlins, you'll break those hinges to pieces if you force them so. . . . My dear lady! . . . I am shocked to death. . . . but, upon my soul, I have not a moment to spare!' 'I wish to speak to you, my lord, without the presence of your servant.' 'My dearest Mrs. Barnaby, you need not mind Rawlins any more than the coffee-pot! . . . You have no idea what a capital fellow he is! . . . true as steel. . . . silent as the grave. . . . That's it, Rawlins! . . . I'll set my foot upon it while you turn the key. . . . here! it is this crooked one.' 'Lord Mucklebury! . . . you must be aware. . . . began the widow. 'Aware! . . . Good Heaven, yes! . . . To be sure, I am! But what can I do, my dearest Mrs. Barnaby? . . . I must catch the packet, you see. . . . How is dear, good Miss Morrison? . . . Now for the dressing-case, Rawlins! . . . don't forget the soap—

I've done with it! . . . For goodness' sake, don't tell my excellent friend, Miss Morrison, how very untidy you have found everything about me. . . . She is so very neat, you know! . . . I'm sure she'd. . . . Mind the stoppers, Rawlins—put a bit of cotton upon each of them!' 'Is it thus, Lord Mucklebury, that you receive one who. . . . I know what you would say, my charming friend!' interrupted his lordship, handing her a plate of buttered toast. . . . 'that I am the greatest bear in existence; . . . No! you will not eat with me? . . . But you must excuse me, dear friend, for I have a long drive before me.' And, so saying, Lord Mucklebury seated himself at the table, replenished his coffee-cup, broke the shell of an egg, and seriously set about eating an excellent breakfast. The widow was at a loss what to do or say next. Had he been rude or angry, or even silent and sullen, or in any other mood in the world but one of such very easy good humour, she could have managed better. But a painful sort of conviction began to creep over her that Lord Mucklebury's present conduct, as well as all that had passed before, was merely the result of high-breeding and fashionable manners, and that lords and ladies always did so to one another. If this were so, rather than betray such rustic ignorance as to appear surprised at it, she would have consented to live without a lover for weeks and weeks to come; . . . and the terrible idea followed, that by having ignorantly hoped for too much she might have lost a most delightful opportunity of forming an intimate friendship with a peer of the realm, that might have been creditable and useful to her, either abroad or at home. Fortunately Lord Mucklebury was really hungry, and he ate so heartily for a minute or two, that the puzzled lady had time to settle her purpose, and take the new tone that her ambition suggested to her, which she did with a readiness that his lordship really admired. 'Well! . . . I see how it is, my lord,' said she; 'I come here to ask you to do a commission for me at Rome, where the papers told me you were going; but you are too busy and too hungry to spare a moment upon an old acquaintance.' 'No! upon my soul!' . . . said Lord Mucklebury, throwing some of his former homage into his eyes as he bowed to her. 'There is no commission in the world you could give me, from New York to Jerusalem, that I would not execute with the fidelity of a western or an eastern slave. What are your commands, bewitching Mrs. Barnaby?' 'Merely, my lord, that you would buy a set of shells for me—as nearly like Lady Stephenson's as possible; and I dare say,' she added, very cleverly drawing out her purse, to avoid any misconception respecting the object. 'I dare say your lordship, who has travelled so much, may be able to tell me pretty nearly what the price will be. . . . About ten pounds, I think.' And ten golden sovereigns were immediately thrown from the purse upon the table. Lord Mucklebury, perfectly delighted by this brilliant proof of the versatility of her powers, gaily took her purse from her hand, and replacing the money in it, said—'It is not so that I execute the commissions of my fair friends, Mrs. Barnaby. . . . I will note your orders in my pocket-book, thus. . . . A set of the handsomest shells in Rome for the charming Mrs. Barnaby.' See! . . . I can hardly overlook it; and when I have the pleasure of presenting them, we will settle about the price.' He replaced her purse in her hand, which he kissed with his best air of Cheltenham gallantry; upon which she wisely rose, and saying, with every appearance of being perfectly satisfied with her reception, 'Adieu, my lord! forgive my intrusion, and let me hope to have the pleasure of seeing you when you return,' she took her departure, perfectly convinced that her new-born conjecture was right, and that lords had privileges not accorded to other men."

Such a Widow as this surely deserved a prize at last: and having, in general terms, stated that she obtains her deserts, (though we admire not the manner in which the end is brought about,) we will add nothing more, save a recommendation, to all who wish amusement, to take a peep at the last and most wonderful of the Widows—the gigantic, over-dressed, and self-complacent Widow Barnaby.

Practical Observations on the Causes and Treatment of the Curvatures of the Spine. By Samuel Hare, Surgeon. Simpkin & Marshall.

HERE is another medical witness risen up to bear testimony against the folly and barbarity concealed beneath the polished surface of that highly-varnished piece of ebony *marqueterie*, which in Europe is called civilization. Distortions of the spine are diseases comparatively unknown to savage life—diseases for which the vices of society are strictly answerable, and which are multiplying in rapidly expanding *ratio*, amidst our printing presses and our power looms, and the growing complexity of all our social relations. The frequency of the malady has created a corresponding frequency of publications, to elucidate its origin and to direct its cure; and we have again and again been called upon to bring the subject before our readers.

The *rationale* of the phenomena is perfectly understood, the activity of their exciting causes is open to the scrutiny of the senses. It is no question of inappreciable vital changes taking place in the interior of our mysterious frame, on which an infinity of minute and complicated events stand between the result and its imputed occasions, to obscure our perceptions and to cast doubt around our conclusions. The whole is a matter of the coarsest mechanical action, the effects being the very antitypes of the causes, and showing their operations as the plaster cast shows the forms of the mould. In the present state of medical literature, no parent of a deformed child, from among those classes who have leisure to read and to reflect, can stand excused, under the plea of ignorance or inadvertence; the facts are recorded in the most accessible forms, and their progress might be detected on the persons of the sufferers, and referred to their very obvious occasions, if the dimmest ray of intellect were suffered to break through the misty routine which passes under the appellation of parental solicitude.

In thus speaking of deformity, we must of course be understood as pointing only to its more frequent occasional cause,—tight lacing,—and without reference to the many remoter influences of ill understood civilization, tending to produce constitutional debility, which renders the frame generally too impressionable, and exposes it to manifold varieties of irregular development. It must be admitted that the more scientific members of the faculty are themselves only beginning to perceive the various ways in which the very framework of our social institutions is slowly but certainly acting to deteriorate the physical constitution, no less than the moral condition of man. We admit that the *mens sana in corpore sano* is the very last object which suggests itself to legislators, in the construction of their codes; and that the red men of the American wilds are not more inapprehensive of the medical bearings of law upon happiness, than the majority of our senators. We believe that to the morbid impressionability, occasioned by causes inherent in our social systems (and therefore inevitable by the individual), a few cases of spinal deformity may be solely attributable; and we are certain that the frequency and aggravation of the evil may, in all, be partly referred to such causes. We are satisfied that upon children, of an healthy constitution, and otherwise wisely treated, much of the absurd practices of their Caribbe mothers, to produce what they tastelessly fancy a fine shape, might be employed with less injury to the victims; for so vigorous is the resistance which a sound organization opposes to external evils, that a long series of human action is required to break it down, and to deface the fair

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Abstraction, however, being made of the remoter accessory influences which predispose to disease, the frequent deformities of which the female sex are such deplorable victims, are directly referable to absurd efforts at improvement, undertaken by those to whom their training is intrusted; and to the incapability of mothers to see what is passing before their eyes, or to take three steps of consecutive reasoning upon the facts when they are perceived. The extent of delusion becomes more striking, when we reflect that the very object, in pursuit of which this interference with nature is attempted, is visibly defeated by the means employed; its results, far from being an increased grace and beauty, are the obliteration of both. Yet mothers, with their high-shouldered, misshapen elder daughters before their eyes, or themselves possibly bearing in their own persons the penalties of the cruel mistake, persist in their course; and that, too, for no better reason than because the fashion subsists, and they lack independence of spirit to break through its trammels.

Deformity of person, however, though the most obtrusively obvious consequence of maternal ignorance, and of that grievous popular blindness, which not merely encourages but enforces it, is far from the most cruel of its results: intellectual and moral distortions, socially more offensive to philanthropy, are commenced in the nursery, and confirmed during youth. But to what purpose do we notice these things? in what purpose does the profession hold them up to the public gaze, almost daily? Here, indeed, wisdom cries out in the streets, and no one regards it. How are the self-satisfied pupils of a narrow unintellectual system of education, which reigns over all classes of society, to be awakened to the sense of their own deficiency! How are men to be taught that Greek metres are not wisdom, that rules are not principles, and that something more than they have yet acquired is necessary to fit them, either for political or for domestic legislation? when will they learn that polite learning is only a more specious ignorance, and that the positive arts and sciences are civilizing, merely inasmuch as they may afford a means for the discovery of social truths?

In Mr. Hare's volume, and in his plates, the mischiefs of tight lacing may be advantageously studied. They afford, we think, a satisfactory demonstration, (if further demonstration of a manifest abuse may yet hope to lead to reform), that those instruments of torture, the stays, under all their modifications of "form and pressure," should be utterly discarded. Much evil has been done by the tolerance which medical men have yielded,—nay, by the encouragement they have given to certain *soi-disant* improvements in the art of ingeniously tormenting; for if there be any form of stays, so false to its own assumed utilities as to exert no pressure at all, (and such only can be deemed innocuous,) there is yet no security in their adoption, against the conceit of uneducated artists, or their inability to apply their apparatus to individual peculiarities of form. Nothing short of an unrelenting proscription, and a return to that perfect freedom from restraint which produced the beautiful forms of antiquity, will meet the exigencies of the case. This it is the duty of the profession to preach aloud in the highways and in the byways: perhaps, at the end of some hundred years, men may find leisure to listen and to learn.

With respect to the very complicated machinery recommended by the author for the cure of distortion, we must speak with more reserve. Generally speaking, we have doubts of the practical value of such means; and we are certain,

that to ensure any degree of resulting good, they must be adopted under the vigilant eye of a professional man, of very superior physiological attainments.

Correspondence of William Pitt, Earl of Chatham. Vol. II. Murray.

This volume is perhaps a trifle more interesting than the former—the parties are becoming more heated and in earnest,—we are admitted occasionally behind the scenes,—but there is nothing in it to induce us to alter or qualify the opinion we heretofore expressed of the probable value of the whole series. The letters extend from 1757 to 1766, and the more important events to which they refer are the negotiations to secure Mr. Pitt (on conditions), or keep him out of the ministry—the expulsion of Wilkes—the legality of general warrants—the peace of 1762—the Pitt pension, and the Chatham peerage; all, however, baldly adverted to in the letters, though reasonably well elucidated and explained in notes by the Editors. The best letters in the collection are those of Mr. Nuthall, a solicitor and the law agent of Mr. Pitt. In the following he gives a vivid picture of the reception of the ministers on their visit to the Lord Mayor, shortly after the resignation of Pitt in 1761:—

"Friday, Nov. 12, 1761.

"When I wrote my last note to your ladyship, I had heard but little concerning the triumphal entry into the city on Lord Mayor's day. It now comes out, that a party of bruisers, with George Stephenson, the one-eyed fighting coachman, at their head, had been hired to attend the chariot which contained the blazing comet and the new chancellor of the exchequer* (which last, it seems, has undertaken to raise the supplies for the next year by a tax upon wild ducks), and to procure shouts and acclamations from the mob. By the time the procession, which moved but slowly, had got into St. Paul's Church-yard, these fellows had hallowed themselves hoarse, and it had been given out that Mr. Pitt was in the chariot, by which means, they had artfully obtained the mob to join them: but, on the east side of St. Paul's Church-yard, some knowing hand stepped up, and looking full at the idol, pronounced, with a fine hoarse audible voice, 'by G—d, this is not Pitt; this is Bute, and be damned to him;' (I beg pardon of your ladyship for writing such words; but historians ought to tell facts as they happened.) Upon this, the tide took another turn; and the bruisers' lungs being worn out, the shouts from the independent mobility were instantly converted into hisses, accompanied with a few vulgar sayings, as 'D—n all Scotch rogues!'—'No Bute!'—'No Newcastle salmon!'—'Pitt for ever!' By the time they reached Cheapside, it was discovered there were some bruisers hired for protectors: this gave still greater offence, and then they began to be more outrageous; and on the turn into King Street an attack began on the coachman and footmen behind with dirt, some of which found its way into the chariot, and very much altered the colour of the new chancellor's ruffles; for it fixed on him only. Before they arrived at Guildhall, the bruisers were almost bruised to death themselves. Stephenson had been obliged to retire under the chariot, and with great difficulty got into Guildhall Coffee-house in great disgrace, and trampled under foot. It was with no small labour the chariot got up to the gate of Guildhall, where the constables and peace officers, being numerous, prevented further mischief; but had there been a furlong further to go, the mob would certainly have cut the harnesses in pieces, and probably gone to greater extremity. At night, his lordship took the opportunity to get into the Lord Chancellor's state coach, and went away with him, and by that means got home quietly; but I have not yet heard how he rested. I am, Madam,

"Your most obedient servant,

"T. NUTHALL."

In a subsequent letter Mr. Nuthall gives the particulars of the action brought by the printers against the King's messengers:—

* Lord Barrington.

Crosby Square, July 7, 1763.

"Sir,—The first of fourteen trials, in actions brought by the journeymen and people employed by one Leach, a printer, who were taken up by the secretary of state's warrant, and in custody of the messengers some hours, as the printers of the North Briton, No. 45, when in fact they were in nowise concerned in it, came on to be tried before Lord Chief Justice Pratt, at nine yesterday morning, and lasted till eight at night; when the jury found a verdict for three hundred pounds damages against the messengers generally, and refused to find a special verdict; which was much pressed by the counsel for the defendants, namely, the attorney and solicitor general, and the four King's sergeants. The plaintiffs' circumstances certainly were not taken into consideration by the jury, for much less had been sufficient in that view only; but they probably considered the danger of the precedent, and saw pretty plainly, by the manner in which the defence was conducted, that the messengers were well and sufficiently indemnified. Besides this, the defendants' counsel delivered in a bill of exceptions (a very unusual proceeding) to the chief justice's opinion on the questions of law, which much incensed the jury, and did not a little contribute to enhance the damages; for these exceptions must be argued before all the judges of the court of common pleas, and may afterwards be carried to the King's bench, exchequer chamber, and ultimately to the house of lords, which would be attended with great expense as well as delay to the plaintiff. The two questions on which the bill of exceptions was founded were these: first, that by a late act of parliament constables must be sued with the justices of the peace, and not separately: and the justices must have a month's notice before action brought, in order that they may have an opportunity of tendering amends or satisfaction to the party, and it was argued, that secretaries of state must be considered as justices of the peace, and messengers as constables; and therefore no notice having been given in the present case, nor any action brought against the secretary of state, this action could not be supported. But this objection was overruled, for two reasons, by the chief justice; first, because the statute nowhere mentions secretaries of state, or messengers, nor are they within the purview or intent, more than within the letter of the act; and it is perhaps but a fiction in law to consider them as justices of the peace: secondly, supposing them to be justices of the peace, and the messengers to be constables, yet the latter could not be brought within this act, because they had no warrant for doing what they did; for the warrant was to apprehend the printers and publishers of the North Briton, No. 45, whereas they did not take up those people, but innocent men, who had never any concern with that paper, and therefore they were not entitled to the protection or sanction of the warrant, which expressly directed them to do what they did not. The second point laboured by the attorney and solicitor-general was, that there was a *probable cause* for apprehending these people, which was sufficient to justify the messengers, if considered as constables. The first answer to this is, that in actions of false imprisonment, *probable cause* is no justification: it is so in seizures of run goods, to prevent officers of the revenue from being liable to costs; but this is by particular and express act of parliament, which can be extended only to the cases mentioned in that act. But how did the *probable cause* come out upon evidence? Thus,—Mr. Carrington, the messenger, told three other messengers, who executed the warrant, that he had been told by a gentleman, who had been told by another gentleman, that Leach's people printed the paper in question. This was all the *probable cause* they could show; which had not the least shadow of probability in it. Mr. Attorney-General opened the defence, with a long panegyric on the King's personal virtues; his love of liberty; the dreadful tendency of all the papers called North Britons; the good and great effects of the union; the personal bravery and qualities of the Scots in general, and the terrible consequences of reviving national prejudices and distinctions, &c. &c. &c. A very good speech upon the whole, if addressed to the King himself, but a very injudicious one to a jury of citizens of London. Mr. Wilkes was present, and after the trial was followed out of Guildhall with loud acclamations; and,

on the other hand, Mr. Solicitor-General had one continued hiss from the court into his chariot. The chief justice had warm work of it, yet he must sit till all the fourteen causes are tried. Had the verdict been for small damages, probably the rest of the actions had been soon determined; but for fear of the like damages, by every jury, the counsel for the crown must now fight every cause through, or it may happen that all the secret service money left may not be sufficient to pay the damages found in all the causes. The bill of exceptions filled two large skins of parchment, and had been settled before the trial began; so they could not trust the chief justice, it was very plain, and guessed at what his opinion would be. It is a method of practice allowed in the law, but I never recollect its being once done since I was in business. It is arraigning the judgment of the judge, and a very ill compliment to him; and in these cases now depending I am persuaded will do their cause no good with the juries who are to try them, or with the public. You will be pleased to observe, that the exceptions taken to the chief justice's determination on the questions of law are the more provoking and ungracious, as the objections made by the King's counsel did not at all affect or go to the merits, and tended only to nonsuit the plaintiff, for want of conformity to the mode prescribed by the act of parliament for bringing his action; so that all that was intended was to put off the trial and weary the plaintiff out by expense and delay. As these plaintiffs were not the printers of No. 45, North Briton, if the warrant they were imprisoned by was ever so legal, still it would be false imprisonment, and therefore yesterday little was said touching the validity or legality of the secretary of state's warrants; but it is universally adjudged to be bad, and not to be supported. I am, Sir, Your most faithful and obedient servant,

"T. NUTHALL."

The nature of the negotiation opened with Mr. Pitt in 1763 by Lord Bute, through the agency of Beckford, is well enough explained by reference to the letters and papers of the Earl of Hardwicke, otherwise the Chatham letters relating to the transaction would be utterly valueless:—

"The Earl of Hardwicke, in a letter to his son, Lord Royston, written on Sunday the 4th of September, gives the following authentic and interesting account of this interview:—'I have heard the whole from the Duke of Newcastle, and on Friday morning *de source* from Mr. Pitt. It is as strange as it is long; for I believe it is the most extraordinary transaction that ever happened in any court in Europe, even in times as extraordinary as the present. It began, as to the substance, by a message from my Lord Bute to Mr. Pitt at Hayes, through my Lord Mayor, to give him the meeting privately at some third place. This his lordship (Lord Bute) afterwards altered by a note from himself, saying, that as he loved to do things openly, he would come to Mr. Pitt's house in Jermyn Street in broad daylight. They met accordingly, and Lord Bute, after the first compliments, frankly acknowledged that his ministry could not go on, and that the King was convinced of it, and therefore he (Lord B.) desired that Mr. Pitt would open himself frankly and at large, and tell him his ideas of things and persons with the utmost freedom. After much excuse and hanging back, Mr. Pitt did so with the utmost freedom indeed, though with civility. Lord Bute heard with great attention and patience; entered into no defence: but at last said, 'If these are your opinions, why should you not tell them to the King himself, who will not be unwilling to hear you?'—'How can I, my lord, presume to go to the King, who am not of his council, nor in his service, and have no pretence to ask an audience?' The presumption would be too great!—'But, suppose his Majesty should order you to attend him, I presume, Sir, you would not refuse it.'—'The King's command would make it my duty, and I should certainly obey it.' This was on last Thursday se'nnight. On the next day (Friday) Mr. Pitt received from the King an open note *unsealed*, requiring him to attend his Majesty on Saturday noon, at the Queen's palace in the Park. In obedience thereto, Mr. Pitt went on Saturday at noon-day through the Mall in his gouty chair, the boot of which (as he said himself) makes it as much known as if his name was writ upon it, to the Queen's

palace. He was immediately carried into the closet; received very graciously; and his Majesty began in like manner as his *quondam* favourite had done, by ordering him to tell him his opinion of things and persons at large, and with the utmost freedom; and I think did in substance make the like confession, that he thought his present ministers could not go on. The audience lasted three hours, and Mr. Pitt went through the whole, upon both heads, more fully than he had done to Lord Bute, but with great complaisance and *douceur* to the King; and his Majesty gave him a very gracious *accueil*, and heard him with great patience and attention. And Mr. Pitt affirms that, in general, and upon the most material points, he appeared by his manner, and many of his expressions, to be convinced. Mr. Pitt went through the infirmities of the peace; the things necessary, and hitherto neglected, to improve and preserve it: the present state of the nation, both foreign and domestic; the great Whig families and persons who had been driven from his Majesty's council and service, which it would be for his interest to restore. In doing this, he repeated many names; upon which his Majesty told him there was pen, ink, and paper, and he wished he would write them down. Mr. Pitt humbly excused himself, saying, that would be too much for him to take upon him, and he might, upon his memory, omit some material persons; which might be subject to imputation. The King still said he liked to hear him, and bid him go on; but said, now and then, that his honour must be consulted; to which Mr. Pitt answered in a very courtly manner. His Majesty ordered him to come again on Monday; which he did, to the same place, and in the same public manner."

"But behold," continues Lord Hardwicke, "the catastrophe of Monday. The King received Mr. Pitt equally graciously; and that audience lasted near two hours. The King began, that he had considered of what had been said, and talked still more strongly of his honour. His Majesty then mentioned Lord Northumberland for the treasury, still proceeding upon the supposition of a change. To this Mr. Pitt hesitated an objection, that certainly Lord Northumberland might be considered, but that he should not have thought of him for the treasury. His Majesty then mentioned Lord Halifax for the treasury. Mr. Pitt said, 'Suppose your Majesty should think fit to give his Lordship the paymaster's place?' The King replied, 'But, Mr. Pitt, I had designed that for poor George Grenville; he is your near relation and you once loved him.' To this the only answer made was a low bow. And now here comes the bait. 'Why,' says his Majesty, 'should not Lord Temple have the treasury? You go on then very well!—'Sir, the person whom you shall think fit to favour with the chief conduct of your affairs cannot possibly go on without a treasury connected with him; but that alone will do nothing. It cannot be carried on without the great families who have supported the Revolution government, and other great persons of whose abilities and integrity the public have had experience, and who have weight and credit in the nation. I should only deceive your Majesty, if I should leave you in an opinion that I could go on, and your Majesty make a solid administration, on any other foot!—'Well, Mr. Pitt, I see (or I fear) this won't do. My honour is concerned, and I must support it! *Et sic finita est fabula. Vos valete*; but I cannot with a safe conscience, add *et plaudite*."

Lord Hardwicke subsequently observes, that Mr. Pitt was firmly persuaded that Lord Bute and the King were sincere on the first day, but that on the intermediate Sunday some strong effort was made by other parties which put an end to the treaty. We doubt it: little as can be learned from this Correspondence, we think it offers proof, though shadowy and indistinct, that the popular belief of the power behind the throne greater than the throne itself, was a mere delusion—that the King sounded Mr. Pitt, and, being informed of his views and intentions, and finding him resolute, let the matter quietly drop, well pleased in this as in other instances, to leave the circumstances surrounded with a mystery, which in some degree saved him from all personal responsibility. It has been proved,

beyond doubt, that this was the policy pursued in reference to the American war.

We see nothing else in the volume worth extracting. There are some letters introduced, though not addressed to Lord Chatham, from Mr. Hamilton, — single-speech Hamilton, — giving an account of the debates in Parliament; the more valuable, it is said, because the public were excluded during the greater part of the time. This may be true—but his Reports are really so exceedingly poor and dull, that they can be of little value under any circumstances. Horace Walpole has often in a single sentence conveyed a more vivid picture of a scene in the House than can be collected from all Hamilton's letters.

OUR LIBRARY TABLE.

An Essay on the Neo-Druidic Heresy in Britannia; Part the First; by the Author of 'Britannia after the Romans.' 4to.—Here is a second blow at the Welsh in general, and more especially at the antiquity and purity of their druidical system. (See *Athen.* Nos. 457, 459.) The absurd pretensions to antiquity advanced by most Welsh writers, were sure to meet with disprovers. Absurd they may well be termed. They tell us that Druidism was the patriarchal religion; that to it was added a very refined and very occult philosophy; that both religion and philosophy, being blended harmoniously together, were taught by one order of the noble hierarchy, which had been established by a grandson of Noah. It is one object of the learned, the ingenious, and very fanciful author before us, to prove that druidic opinions are of more recent growth; that they cannot be referred to a period earlier than the colonization of Marseilles by the Greeks; that many of the Pythagorean tenets were, by the colonists, diffused throughout Gaul, and from Gaul carried into Britain; that other idolatrous nations, of an antiquity scarcely as ancient, were interwoven into the religious system of the Celts; that this system consisted of the worst parts of Paganism. Though we have as low an opinion of the druidic system as our author can have, we cannot subscribe to his deductions respecting the comparatively recent origin of its more celebrated tenets. That some of them were identical with those of Pythagoras, and with others of the older Greek schools of philosophy, is known; but the inference which we should be disposed to draw from this fact is, not that they were communicated to the Druids by the Greek colonists, but that they were derived from a source common to the Celts and the Greeks. It has not escaped our author, that some of the leading ones have a strong affinity with those of the Magians and Hindús. Would he not have reasoned more wisely, had he concluded that these kindred notions were brought by the Celts into Western Europe at a period lost in the depths of antiquity—before the Magian philosopher was born? The Celts of Gaul were not so fond of their Greek neighbours,—a mere commercial settlement,—as to adopt them for their teachers. The origin of the tenets common to both, is more recondate than is generally supposed. Media, Persia, or perhaps Bactria, undoubtedly gave rise to many of them; and it is from the sacred books of the Magi and the Brahmins—from the Zend Avesta and the Puranas—that their connexion must be established. To this ingenious book, the more curious student of British antiquities, and of early idolatry in general, must have recourse. It is the book for the few—the very few; and is therefore little calculated for notice in the *Athenæum*.

Cornelius the Centurion, by F. A. Krummacker, D.D.—*The Little Dove; a Story for Children*, by the same.—Krummacker is the most popular divine in Germany; and such of his works as have been translated are more highly valued, in the religious world, than those of any modern continental theologian. The secret of the success of his sermons and his writings is soon told,—there is heart in them. When he first entered on public life as Professor of Theology in the University of Duisburg, the sceptical school pervaded the entire mass of German divinity: the rationalists were in possession of the professors' chairs, and the pulpit; and their whole system of instruction consisted in learned or abstract disquisitions, appealing exclusively to the reason, and avoiding

every attempt was made to introduce the sciences of exact creation, with even creation, logic and related poetic knowledge, that his natural narrative actually the conviction of O Mind, he of all his ing rose, to him, delighted arises, at style, which allegories One of the his love of World; addresses it is thore in the we me." W "Story with fore us w Brene into a cor the progr dawn of d soul. Th quently Christ: illustration

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every attempt to influence the feelings. Such a system was unsuited to a mind so essentially poetic as Krummacher's; gifted with a keen sense of the beauties of external nature, feeling a child-like sympathy with every object of animate and even inanimate creation, he could not be content with the fetters of logic and criticism. His course of study was calculated to increase his natural tendency to take a poetic view of every subject; he acquired so deep a knowledge of the languages and customs of the East, that his friends declare that he spoke of the scriptural narratives of patriarchal life, as if he had actually lived in the tent of Abraham, or accompanied the wanderings of Moses. Feeling an intimate conviction that the Kingdom of Nature and the Kingdom of Grace emanated equally from one Infinite Mind, he made their harmony the living principle of all his writings. A child at play, a blooming rose, the varied colours of the evening sky, were, to him, commentaries on the sacred records; he delighted to trace analogies between them; and hence arises, at once, the strength and the weakness of his style, which is profuse in images, comparisons, and allegories, sometimes carried to an oriental excess. One of the most striking features of his character is his love of children: his poem, called 'The Child's World,' is one of the most affectionate and simple addresses to the heart of youth that ever appeared: it is thoroughly imbued with the spirit which delights in the words, "Suffer little children to come unto me." We recommend it to the translator of the 'Story without an End.' The first of the works before us was originally a series of sermons, preached at Bremen, which the author subsequently moulded into a connected essay. His object in it is to trace the progress of a pure and devout mind, from the first dawn of divine light, to its full manifestation in the soul. The form of the essay is narrative, and it frequently reminds us of Jeremy Taylor's 'Life of Christ': Krummacher, however, is more profuse in illustration, and more daring in allegory, but inferior

in depth of thought and power of reflection. It is full of originality; particularly in the images and illustrations derived from external nature. No one will read it once, that will not gladly read it again. 'The Little Dove' is a story for children, designed to inculcate universal charity; its style is more simple, though not less poetic, than that of the preceding work; and it abounds in exquisite touches of natural simplicity.

The Discovery of the Vital Principle, or Physiology of Man.—We notice this work merely on account of the title, and to save our less learned readers from the disappointment, to which it might lead. The following "taste of its quality" will indicate the value of "the discovery," which the volume professes to unfold.—"Life is the ascent or progression of a straight line ad infinitum: death the deviation from it. Gravitation may be called the death, or descent of matter from its most highly organized to its least organized state; and attraction the life, or ascent of matter from the last to the first or perfect condition."—"A balloon rises in the atmosphere by throwing out ballast, and thus is made by its levity to rise above the ordinary confines of matter, and tower over the whole visible creation. Just so, man from the surface of his body, exhales the matter which would be destructive to his elasticity, and keeps up his living locomotive powers."—"We are told likewise, "that all matter comprising this universe is diamond;" that diamond "at the freezing point," is "what we term iron;" and that "the elasticity and non-elasticity of all bodies, is occasioned by the expansion and contraction of Mercury" [sic]. To these extracts, it is unnecessary to add a word concerning either the discovery, or its author. We may however remark, that 546 pages of such materials are a rare addition to mental pathology, and, in this point of view, a rather startling phenomenon.

An Introduction to the Critical Study of Ecclesiastical History, by J. G. Dowling, M.A.—This book is useful so far as it goes; and our only complaint is

against its brevity. The sources and progress of ecclesiastical history during eighteen centuries, are surely too vast a subject for a thin octavo. The author should have given students of theology—those especially who are preparing for the ministry—something more substantial than this slight treatise.

Hickie's Longinus.—The editor appears more anxious to display his learning, which does not seem very extensive, than to assist the student. Pearce's edition of Longinus is almost the only one in England worthy the notice of a scholar, and the translation by Spurdens, with its dissertations and notes, supersedes the necessity of further elucidations of "the golden book."

Gisborne's God is Love.—Very good, and very dull. *National Education on a Christian Basis.*—This pamphlet should have been named Church Education on the narrowest possible basis.

List of New Books.—Francis's Little English Flora, 12mo. 6s. 6d.—Brooke on the Office of Notary, 8vo. 21s.—Hayes's Introduction to Conveyancing, 4th edit. royal 8vo. 30s.—Lardner's Cyclopaedia, Vol. CX. fc. 6s.—Bingley's Tales of Shipwrecks, square 16mo. 4s.—Reid's Elements of the Practice of Medicine, 8vo. 15s.—Last of the Plantagenets, 3rd edit. fc. 7s. 6d.—Colburn's Modern Novelists, Florence MacCarthy, fc. 6s.—Stokes's Complete Cabinet-maker, 18mo. 2s. 6d.—Church Calendar, post 8vo. 4s.—Gleig's Germany, Bohemia, and Hungary, 3 vols. post 8vo. 31s. 6d.—Henry's (P.) Exposition and Practical Observations on the First Eleven Chapters of Genesis, 18mo. 4s.—Discovery of the Vital Principle or Physiology of Man, 8vo. 14s.—Haas' Gleanings from Germany, royal 12mo. 9s.—Milner's Church History Continued, by Stebbing, Vol. I. 8vo. 12s.—Willis's Illustrations of Cutaneous Diseases, folio, No. 1. 5s.—Rob of the Bowl, by Kennedy, 3 vols. post 8vo. 24s.—Sinclair's Holiday Home, fc. 5s. 6d.—Ribbatt's Moral Contrast, 3rd edit. fc. 1s. 6d.—Fowler's Tables for Poor Law Unions, 8vo. 10s.—Logan's Scottish Banker, 18mo. 2s. 6d.—Smith's Pilgrim's Staff, 12mo. 5s. 6d.—Krummacher's St. John, 12mo. cl. 3s.—Sacred Poetry, 2nd series, 32mo. 3s.—Memoirs of Dr. Waugh, by Hay and Beilrage, royal 12mo. 7s.—Buchanan's Comfort in Affliction, 5th edit. fc. 3s. 6d.—McDonald's Christian Doctrine and Duty, 18mo. 2s. 6d.—Rawling's Sermons, 8vo. 6s.—Hayward's Faust, 3rd edit. fc. 8s.—Sharpe's History of the Ptolemies, 4to. 8s. 6d.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL for DECEMBER, kept by the Assistant Secretary, at the Apartments of the Royal Society, BY ORDER OF THE PRESIDENT AND COUNCIL.

1838. Dec.	9 o'clock, A.M.			3 o'clock, P.M.			External Thermometers.			Rain in inches. Head off at 9 A.M.	Direction of the Wind at 9 A.M.	REMARKS.	
	Barometer uncorrected.		Att. Ther.	Barometer uncorrected.		Att. Ther.	Fahrenheit.						
	Flint Glass.	Crown Glass.		Flint Glass.	Crown Glass.		9 A.M.	3 P.M.	Lowest				Highest
	Dew Point at 9 A.M., deg. Fahr.	Diff. of Wet and Dry Bulb Thermometer.											
○ S	29.552	29.544	47.2	29.520	29.514	48.4	42	01.3	46.7	51.2	45.2	52.0	{ A.M. Fine—light clouds and wind. P.M. Overcast—light wind. Rain, with very high wind.
○ 2	29.464	29.458	50.8	29.484	29.476	51.6	46	02.9	52.7	52.6	46.2	53.2	{ A.M. Fine—lt. cluds. & wind. P.M. Overcast—lt. rain & wind. Ev. Overcast.
M 3	29.464	29.456	49.3	29.442	29.436	49.9	44	01.9	46.7	49.7	46.0	55.0	{ Before 11. Thunder & lightning, with heavy rain & high wind. Fine & cloudless—lt. wind throughout the day. Ev. Fine & clear.
T 4	29.564	29.556	47.6	29.610	29.602	48.4	41	01.3	42.2	47.6	42.5	48.8	{ A.M. Fine & cloudless—light fog. P.M. Cloudy. Evening, Fine & starlight night.
W 5	29.834	29.828	45.2	29.928	29.922	46.3	40	01.5	40.9	45.8	38.9	48.6	{ A.M. Overcast—light fog—deposition. P.M. Fine—light clouds & wind. Evening, Overcast.
T 6	30.256	30.250	45.3	30.286	30.278	45.9	36	02.4	41.8	42.7	40.8	47.2	{ A.M. Light fog. P.M. Fine—light clouds & wind. Ev. Overcast.
F 7	30.256	30.248	45.9	30.274	30.266	46.7	43	01.5	47.7	47.3	40.5	48.6	{ Overcast—light rain throughout the day. Evening, Fine and clear.
S 8	30.362	30.354	43.3	30.368	30.360	43.7	37	02.7	38.8	42.2	37.6	48.7	{ Fine—very light clouds and wind throughout the day. Evening, Fine and clear.
○ 9	30.412	30.404	40.3	30.370	30.364	41.5	33	01.5	33.8	37.4	32.9	41.0	{ A.M. Thick fog—deposition—light wind. P.M. Overcast. Evening, Thick fog—sharp frost.
M 10	30.280	30.272	38.4	30.208	30.200	38.8	32	02.0	33.7	38.7	30.0	38.3	{ Overcast—light fog nearly the whole of the day. Evening, Fine & starlight.
T 11	30.288	30.282	39.2	30.316	30.308	39.9	34	01.8	39.9	43.7	33.7	40.6	{ Thick fog, with light wind throughout the day. Ev. Overcast.
W 12	30.342	30.334	40.9	30.300	30.292	41.7	36	02.2	41.3	44.2	39.6	44.3	{ Overcast—light fog throughout the day, as also the evening.
T 13	30.326	30.320	42.2	30.330	30.322	42.9	38	02.2	43.2	45.8	41.6	44.7	{ Overcast—light fog throughout the day, as also the evening.
F 14	30.410	30.402	44.7	30.384	30.376	45.2	38	02.2	42.8	45.8	42.8	45.9	{ A.M. Thick fog. P.M. Fine—light clouds and wind. Ev. Light fog.
S 15	30.366	30.358	44.2	30.318	30.310	44.6	38	02.0	40.6	41.8	41.0	46.2	{ A.M. Overcast—light rain and wind. P.M. Fine—light clouds. Evening, Fine and starlight.
○ 16	30.360	30.352	41.8	30.358	30.350	42.0	33	01.7	38.4	39.2	38.2	43.3	{ A.M. Cloudy—light wind. P.M. Overcast. Evening, Light fog.
M 17	30.366	30.360	40.5	30.332	30.324	40.3	34	02.4	35.6	35.8	35.4	39.8	{ Overcast—brisk wind throughout the day, as also the evening.
T 18	30.316	30.308	39.2	30.280	30.272	39.8	32	02.5	35.3	35.3	34.9	36.6	{ Overcast—light wind, with sharp frost throughout the day, as also the evening.
W 19	30.224	30.218	37.8	30.172	30.164	38.2	30	02.1	34.6	37.5	33.4	36.3	{ Overcast—light wind throughout the day. Ev. Fine & clear.
T 20	30.192	30.184	37.6	30.206	30.200	38.9	32	01.8	36.7	41.7	34.9	37.3	{ A.M. Cloudy—thick fog. P.M. Fine—light clouds. Ev. Fine & starlight.
F 21	30.364	30.358	40.9	30.354	30.346	40.6	35	00.8	35.8	36.7	35.7	36.7	{ Overcast—light brisk wind throughout the day, as also the evening.
S 22	30.104	30.096	39.3	30.016	30.010	39.4	33	01.9	35.8	38.0	34.2	38.3	{ A.M. Lightly overcast—light wind. P.M. Overcast—light rain. Evening, Continued rain.
○ 23	29.572	29.568	41.2	29.444	29.438	42.0	36	02.0	42.8	43.8	36.0	43.7	{ Overcast—very light rain and wind nearly the whole of the day. Evening, Overcast—light wind.
M 24	29.310	29.304	42.9	29.274	29.268	42.9	37	01.5	41.8	39.2	41.8	44.4	{ Ditto ditto. Evening, Overcast.
T 25	29.658	29.650	40.6	29.814	29.810	41.2	32	02.1	34.5	35.8	34.2	35.7	{ Fine—light clouds throughout the day. Evening, Fine and clear.
W 26	29.918	29.914	36.2	29.734	29.728	37.2	27	01.0	29.7	38.2	29.8	34.8	{ A.M. Light fog. P.M. Overcast—very lt. rain. Ev. Lt. rain, with h. wind.
T 27	29.662	29.654	37.9	29.776	29.770	39.2	31	01.5	34.8	41.7	30.0	39.2	{ Fine—light clouds throughout the day. Evening, Fine and clear. Sharp frost during the night.
F 28	30.230	30.222	37.4	30.298	30.292	38.2	31	01.3	33.8	40.6	33.8	40.8	{ A.M. Fine—lt. fog—white frost. P.M. Fine—lt. clouds & wind. Ev. A.M. Cloudy—light rain & wind. P.M. Cloudy—light wind.
S 29	30.222	30.216	37.4	30.196	30.188	39.3	33	02.2	39.9	43.7	33.8	40.8	{ Evening, Overcast—very light rain.
○ 30	30.152	30.146	42.5	30.066	30.058	44.4	38	01.0	47.4	49.7	40.2	48.2	{ Overcast—very light rain and wind nearly the whole of the day, as also the evening.
M 31	30.496	30.490	42.6	30.534	30.528	42.8	35	01.7	36.8	41.7	36.2	50.7	{ Fine—light clouds and wind throughout the day. Ev. Fine & clear.
MEAN.	30.075	30.068	41.9	30.064	30.057	42.6	35.7	01.8	39.6	42.4	37.5	43.5	{ Sum. 9 A.M. 3 P.M. F. 30.042 .. 30.030 C. 30.034 .. 30.022

Note.—The daily observations are recorded just as they are read off from the scale, without the application of any correction whatever.

MRS. MACLEAN.

It is painful to open the chronicle of a new literary year with an announcement in every respect so melancholy as that of the death of Mrs. Maclean (the well-known L. E. L.). This took place, suddenly, at Cape Coast Castle, on the 15th of last October; according to private letters, it was occasioned by medicine taken improperly, or in too large a quantity, for the relief of spasms to which she was subject—and was not, as might be supposed, the consequence of a climate proverbially fatal to English residents. But a few days before the tidings arrived, there were letters in town from Mrs. Maclean, in which she wrote cheerfully of her position and her future literary plans, making the best of her strange and dismal place of sojourn, by saying, that its palms and cocoa-trees reminded her of her favourite book—the Arabian Nights.

The time for a personal notice of this lady is not yet come: it may be stated, however, that Mrs. Maclean was the daughter of an army-agent, and the niece of Dr. Landon, Dean of Exeter, whose death is also announced in this week's papers; and that the early loss of her father, and the early manifestation of a talent facile as it was fanciful, brought her before the world while yet a girl, as an enthusiastic and constant literary labourer. To her honour, it must be added, that the fruits of her incessant exertion were neither selfishly hoarded nor foolishly trifled away—but applied to the maintenance and advancement of her family. It might be partly the early consciousness of this power to befriend others, and partly the indiscriminate flatteries of those by whom she was surrounded and pushed forward at her first entrance into authorship—which encouraged her to such ceaseless composition as necessarily precluded the thought and cultivation essential to the production of poetry of the highest order. Hence, with all their fancy and feeling, her principal works—the 'Improvisatrice'—the 'Troubadour'—the 'Golden Violet'—the 'Golden Bracelet'—and the 'Vow of the Peacock,'—bear a strong family likeness to each other in their recurrence to the same sources of allusion, and the same veins of imagery,—in the conventional rather than natural colouring of their descriptions, and in the excessive though not unmusical carelessness of their versification. It should be remarked, however, that in spite of the ceaseless strain upon her powers, and the ceaseless distractions of a London life, Miss Landon accomplished much for her own mind in the progress of its career; that she had reached a deeper earnestness of thought—had added largely to the stores of her knowledge, and done much towards the polishing and perfecting of her verse,—her latest published lyric 'The Polar Star,' written on shipboard, and which appears in the current number of the *New Monthly Magazine*, is an earnest, that the scenes upon which she was entering, would have opened a new life for the authoress as well as the woman.

Besides her poetry, Miss Landon's three novels—'Romance and Reality'—'Francesca Carrara'—and 'Ethel Churchill,' remain to attest her powers as a prose writer. They are, all of them, stories of sentiment: the two latter relieved by glimpses of such gay and courtly life, as Watteau loved to paint, and Walpole and Lady Mary Wortley Montagu to embalm in their correspondence. In right of this spirit they in some degree reflect the conversation of their authoress—which sparkled always brightly with quick fancy, and a *badinage* astonishing to those matter-of-fact persons who expected to find, in the manners and discourse of the poetess, traces of the weary heart, the broken lute, and the disconsolate willow-tree, which were so frequently her themes of song. Another novel was in progress at the time she was snatched away with such awful suddenness—it having been her purpose to maintain her literary relations with England, and her hope to produce yet better and fresher works. Had her life been spared, this hope would, we think, have been fulfilled. As it is, the public will recollect pleasantly what she has achieved, and feel the void caused by the withdrawal of her graceful and versatile fancy. Her private friends and her literary contemporaries, too, will remember her long—as one alike kind, affectionate, and liberal.

THE ARCHBISHOP OF CASHEL.

The Irish papers announce the death of a prelate whose name has long ceased to be familiar to the learned world, but who was once distinguished as an eminent Biblical critic and ecclesiastical historian. The Most Rev. Richard Lawrence was a Fellow of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, and afterwards Professor of Hebrew in that University. He was a diligent student of the oriental languages, and translated from the Ethiopic the apocryphal book of Enoch. Next to this in importance we must rank Dr. Lawrence's Bampton Lectures, which are still the best authority on the antiquities of the English Liturgy. In 1822, Dr. Lawrence was raised to the archiepiscopal see of Cashel, through the interest of Sir Robert Peel, who had been his pupil. He immediately withdrew himself from literary life, and devoted his attention almost exclusively to the care of his diocese, carefully abstaining from all intermeddling with politics, and by precept and example discouraging controversy. His charges are principally remarkable for mildness and moderation. In private life he was admired for his conversational powers, his skill in drawing out the modest and retiring, and his forbearance towards the tiresome and the presumptuous. Few Irish prelates have been more liked by the Roman Catholics, for he made it a rule never to let religion interfere with the charities and courtesies of life. During the later years of his life, he mixed very little with the world, but we know that to the last he felt a deep interest in the progress of Biblical literature, and meditated more than one work on the subject; but the enlargement of his diocese, under Lord Stanley's Act, by the addition of Waterford and Lismore, and increasing infirmities, compelled him to abandon his intentions.

OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

It had grown into a custom with us to open the New Year with a double number—why, we know not, for the publishers wisely keep holiday at this season, like other Christian people; the Societies are silent; and our readers have less leisure than usual. We have resolved, therefore, to reserve our space for more stirring times. But the publishers, though pleased just now to withhold their treasures, are eloquent in promises; and first and foremost among them, Mr. Bentley has come forth with a list long enough to make the prudent button their breeches-pockets in despair. Among the more important works announced, are further Memoirs, Journals, and Correspondence of that pleasant gossip Samuel Pepys—Memoirs of M. Berryer, the distinguished French advocate, who, our readers may remember, was despatched from Paris by the old Bourbon party to the Duchesse of Berry during her memorable campaign in La Vendée, (see *Athenæum*, No. 307,) written by himself—Memoirs and Correspondence of Joseph Madison, late President of the United States, written by himself—The Life and Times of the Earl of Eldon, by Horace Twiss—Memoirs of Admiral Sir Sidney Smith—Memoirs of the Colman Family—The Correspondence of John Bannister, Comedian, by J. Adolphus—Memoirs of the Courts of Queen Elizabeth and King James the First, by Bishop Goodman, edited by the Rev. J. S. Brewer—England under the Reigns of Edward the Sixth and Mary, by P. F. Tytler—Memoirs of the Court and Times of Queen Anne, by John Foster—The History of the United States, by Dr. Bird—The Naval History of the United States, by F. Fenimore Cooper—to say nothing of the Correspondences of the Earl of Chesterfield, and Horace Walpole, (to include numerous unpublished letters,) and the Memoirs of Count de Grammont, with notes and illustrations. To these we must add, A Winter Journey through Russia, the Caucasian Alps, and Georgia, into Koordistan, by Capt. Mignan—Peru as it is: a Residence in Lima, &c., by Dr. Smith—A Summer in Andalusia, with Rambles through the Moorish Cities and Palaces, by W. Grattan, a work the very title of which reads delightfully—Legends and Romances, African and European, by R. Johns—Sam Slick in England, as well as Bubbles of Canada, by the same writer—How do you like our Country? by Charles Mathews—with numbers numberless of miscellaneous volumes, including National Delusions, or Memoirs of the Folly, Infatuation, and Credulity

of the People, by Charles Mackay, a work that ought to be brim-full of philosophy—Duels and Duelling, by Dr. Millingen—The Victories and Conquests of the British Army, by the Author of Stories of Waterloo—and new novels by Sir Edward Bulwer, Theodore Hook, Boz, Mrs. Gore, Ainsworth, and others, including some from the other side of the Atlantic. But enough: we must reserve the promises of others for next week.

We have looked through the December number of the *Quarterly*, and though compelled to express our regret that so many of its valuable pages should again (as if in compensation for the deficiency of the previous number) be devoted to mere party politics, we cannot but pay the tribute of our praise to the manly spirit of a rather discursive, but amusing article, on the Irish Railroad Report. Considering the report itself as proceeding from Whig authorities, and as executed (this the *Quarterly* takes care to tell us) by men of avowedly liberal opinions, nothing can be more frank and generous than the unqualified admission both of the personal merits of the individuals employed and of the value of their labours. Indeed, we may take the whole of that part of the article, which treats of its professed subject, as one unbroken argument, addressed to the numerous unqualified persons who have presumed to start their own crude and hasty opinions,—or prejudices, rather,—in matters purely professional, against those of men trained and educated for the profession, whose opinions, moreover, were delivered after a protracted examination, and put forth under a solemn and weighty personal responsibility. After a judicious distinction between the parts of the Report which possess such peculiar claims to authority and those of its opinions, which, concerning matters of pure politics or of political economy, are open to a more general canvas, the reviewer concurs heartily with the Commissioners in their recommendation of government interference in the conduct of railways, following pretty closely the line of argument put forward by us in our notice of the Report (*Athenæum*, No. 569). Convinced, as we are, of the necessity for retracing our legislative steps, and restoring to the public its right to its own highways,—and also satisfied of the expediency of an active ministerial co-operation in the construction of a connected series of railways in Ireland,—we are proportionately pleased to find in our contemporary a zealous advocate of these healing measures; and with such assistance, we begin to entertain a hope that they will make head against all opposition. Passing from the useful to the ornamental, we refer with pleasure to the notice of Mr. Scrope's work on Deer-stalking, a spirit-stirring production (which we shall notice next week). In this department, also, we find a notice of the Life of Mathews, of which subject, by-the-by, we already begin to be a-weary. In these times the public are so impatient of what is merely profitable, that the conductors of journals are forced upon a freer course of extracts, from works like the one in question, to wash down the useful, till readers and reviewers alike, must, in some cases, have more than enough of it. Altogether, if the present number contains no article of the same calibre as one or two of the more striking papers in the last, it is yet varied in its contents, and generally good—always, however, excepting those articles, which "for a party give up mankind," and mingle those two incompatibles, literature and political squabbling. Alas! for poor Miss Martineau!

A few sentences from a hasty letter, just received from Rome, may be worth quoting:—"Our voyage from Marseilles to Civita Vecchia was anything but agreeable,—in some degree this was attributable to the weather, but in a still greater to the want of accommodation on board—to want of attendance, and bad food. I mention this that I may, if possible, save some one or more from like annoyance and suffering. Whoever travels by this route, let them try the Tuscan boats. Of course I cannot speak of their positive merits, but nothing can be worse than the *Scamander*, on board which we had the misfortune to embark.—Our countrymen literally swarm here: the hotels are overflowing—the streets full. Art prospers, I hear. Gibson and Wyatt are in no way altered, except that their statues are finer than ever. There is a sculptor of the name of Hogan, an Irishman, of whom I had not heard, of great

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promise, or rather great merit. He is employed on a colossal monument of one of the Irish bishops, which is quite equal to anything I have lately seen in England. Gibson's last work is a Wounded Amazon, heroic size: he is now employed on the marble, and it promises to be a *capo d'opera*. Wyatt has finished a beautiful thing, a Girl touching the stream with her foot. She seems to doubt whether she shall venture further—to wish it were a little less cold. These things struck me in a cursory glance yesterday."

The successful competitor for the Gresham prize medal, annually awarded for the best composition in sacred vocal music is Mr. Edward John Hopkins, formerly a chorister of the Chapel Royal. The premium for a memoir of Margaret Beaufort, Countess of Richmond, has been awarded to Miss Caroline Halsted. The subject announced for the present year is an Essay on the Obligations of Literature to the Mothers of England, and that for 1840 a Memoir of Mary Sydney, Countess of Pembroke.

THE MODEL OF THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO IS NOW EXHIBITED at the Egyptian Hall, Piccadilly, by brilliant Artificial Light. Constantly illuminated from a clock in the afternoon, and throughout the day in dark or unfavourable weather.—Open from Ten in the Morning until Nine in the Evening.—Admission 1s. each: Descriptive Books 6d.

POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTION. Incorporated by Royal Charter, 32, REGENT STREET, near Langham Place. IS OPEN DAILY, from Half-past Ten o'clock, A.M., till Half-past Four P.M., and in the Evenings of Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, from Seven o'clock till Ten o'clock, P.M. These novel scientific Attractions, on most extensive scale, include Diving Bell, and Cary's Microscope, by which the decomposition of water is exhibited in a very striking manner; and a popular Chemical Lecture at Two o'clock, P.M.

MEETINGS FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.

SAT.	Asiatic Society	Two, P.M.
	British Architects	Eight.
	Entomological Society	Eight.
	Society of Arts (<i>Illus.</i>)	Eight.
TUES.	Medical and Chirurgical Society	p. Eight.
	Zoological Society	p. Eight.
	Geological Society	p. Eight.
	Medico-Botanical Society	Eight.
WED.	Literary Fund	Three.
	Society of Arts	Eight.
	Royal Society	p. Eight.
THUR.	Society of Antiquaries	Eight.
	Royal Society of Literature	Four.
FRI.	Astronomical Society	Eight.

MUSIC AND THE DRAMA

DRURY LANE.

This Evening, GUILLAUME TELL; and THE PANTOMIME. On Monday, GUILLAUME TELL; and THE PANTOMIME. Tuesday, THE DEVIL ON TWO STICKS; and THE PANTOMIME.

Wednesday, GUILLAUME TELL; and THE PANTOMIME. Thursday, THE GIPSY'S WARNING; and THE PANTOMIME.

COVENT GARDEN.

This Evening, THE TEMPEST; and THE PANTOMIME. On Monday, WILLIAM TELL; and THE PANTOMIME. Tuesday, THE TEMPEST; and THE PANTOMIME. Wednesday, THE LADY OF LYONS; and THE PANTOMIME. Thursday, THE TEMPEST; and THE PANTOMIME.

VESTRIS's retreat from America, like the retrograde movements of other good generals, has been converted from a repulse abroad into a triumphant return to her own dominions, of which the OLYMPIA is the capital. Though we could only get a peep through the loopholes of the boxes, over a throng of heads, we are enabled to state, by the aid of a lorgnette, that the fair voyager, if somewhat thinner in the face, looked in as good health and spirits as ever, and that she has lost none of her powers of pleasing, though her fascinations failed to captivate Brother Jonathan. Of 'Blue Beard' we can pronounce, that his beard is as blue and as bushy, his scimitar as formidable, and himself as magnificent and ferocious (Blind though he be) as any of his admirers can imagine,—albeit he is no longer disguised as a "turban'd Turk," but attired in the proper costume of his age and country—that of Brittany in the fifteenth century, when he and his sabre flourished. His state is splendid enough to content the most insatiate lover of Oriental pomp, for he possesses half-a-dozen plumed pages, and a household and retinue of proportionate extent. Also his wives make a harem of headless women, as numerous as any Mussulman need covet, and much more orderly; for they are as white and as still as so many images, and their heads only (which they carry under their arms) keep time to the tune of 'Nid, nid, noddin,' wherewith they greet the fresh victim of 'female curiosity.' Vestris, we need scarcely add, is a most charming

Fatima, and convinced us that the old French costume might be becoming on a pretty woman. The story is followed closely enough to satisfy even the critics of the school-room; and the puns, and parodies, and comic anachronisms of the rhyming dialogue, tell with humorous effect. *Blue Beard*, we should observe, is run through—his clothes only; but, as Vestris explains, she hopes he will be "run through—the season;" and he richly deserves such a fate.

The ADELPHI has got M. Bihin, the giant, from Paris, in addition to 'Jim Crow.' What next?

MISCELLANEA

Preservation of Relics.—The church of St. Martin des Champs, which is a dependency on the Conservatory of Arts and Trades, is to be arranged so as to contain the isolated fragments of Christian sculpture, which can be collected in France. It is in itself a curious piece of architecture. The nave is to be repaired.

Casket found at Sea.—A fisherman found on the rock of St. Malo, a closed casket, enveloped in linen. It contained a rosary, a scapulary, and a writing, in the form of a will, signed "Pere Alexis Recollet, missionary among the infidels, 1776." In this writing Pere Alexis recommends the countries which have not yet been visited by the Lord, to Louis XV. This prayer was made just before the ship, *Sainte Marie*, or *Sainte Marine*, perished. This casket has thus been tossed about the ocean for sixty-two years.

Dart's Instructive Forfeit Game.—By this game the author hopes to instruct young persons in Natural History, Astronomy, Scripture Biography, and "eight miscellaneous subjects." It is perfectly intelligible, he assures us, to a child of ten years of age, and yet "not beneath the elder youth."—We give currency to his own report, that our young friends may judge for themselves how far it is likely to afford them amusement.

Steam-boat Incident.—The following incident is related in the Buffalo Commercial Advertiser, as having occurred on Lake Erie, during the tremendous gale which swept over it in the month of November last. In that fearful night, the steam-boat *Constitution*, Capt. Appleby, was out amidst the terrors of the gale. By the glimpses caught at intervals, when the fitful storm for a moment broke away, the anxious and watchful commander was made aware of the critical situation of his boat, which was rapidly drifting in—under the hurricane power of the gale, which blew almost directly across the lake—toward a dangerous reef, from which escape would have been impossible. He went directly to the engineer, and ordered on "more steam." The reply of the engineer was that there was already as much on as the boilers would safely bear. Again did the Captain seek the deck, to see if his labouring boat was making headway, and again returned to the engine room. He explained to the engineer their hazardous situation, and told him that all hope was lost, if no more headway could be gained, but left the engineer to use his discretion in the crisis. A moment of reflection, and the decision was made. He coolly directed the heads of two barrels of oil to be broken in, and the furnaces were rapidly fed with wool dipped in the highly inflammable liquid, while two men with ladders dashed the oil into the flames. The intense heat which these combustibles created, generated steam with the rapidity of lightning, and soon the resistless vapour forced up the safety valve, and issued forth with tremendous violence, its sharp hissing heard above the wild uproar of the waters and the storm. With a desperate and determined courage, which equalled the most daring heroism that the page of history has ever recorded, the engineer sat down upon the lever of the safety valve, to confine and raise the steam to the necessary power required to propel the boat against the drifting waves! In this awful situation he calmly remained, until the prodigious efforts of the engine had forced the *Constitution* sufficiently off shore to be beyond the threatened danger. This intrepid act was not a rash and vain-glorious attempt to gain the applause of a multitude by a foolhardy exposure of life, in some racing excursion—it was not the deed of a drunken and reckless man, wickedly heedless of the safety of those whose lives were perilled—but it was the self-possessed and determined courage of one whose firmness is worthy of all admiration.

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